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REPORTS

FROM

COMMISSIONERS:

TWENTY-FOUR VOLUMES.

—(12.)—

EDUCATION (SCOTLAND)—*continued.*

SCHOOLS INQUIRY.

Session

5 *February* —— 21 *August* 1867.

VOL. XXVI.

SCHOOLS INQUIRY COMMISSION.

REPORT

RELATIVE TO

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.

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REPORT.

TO THE QUEEN'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

MAY IT PLEASE YOUR MAJESTY,

WE, the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the education given in schools not comprised within the scope of Your Majesty's two recent Commissions of Inquiry into the state of Popular Education, and of certain Public Schools, bearing date respectively the thirtieth day of June in the twenty-second year, and the eighteenth day of July in the twenty-fifth year of Your Majesty's reign, humbly submit to Your Majesty the following Report :—

Our attention has been incidentally called to the evidence considered to be afforded by the International Exhibition at Paris, of the inferior rate of progress recently made in manufacturing and mechanical industry in England compared with that made in other European countries. It has been stated to us that this alleged inferiority is due in a great measure to the want of technical education, and we have therefore thought it desirable to ascertain from many eminent English Jurors in this department whether they agree with this opinion.

We think it expedient at once to report to Your Majesty the answers which we have received to our inquiry on this point. Although they have an obvious bearing on the propriety of encouraging to a large extent the study of Physical Science in our schools, and especially in schools used by those classes which are probably destined to the pursuit of manufacturing industry, (a question which had already engaged much of our attention and to which we hope more fully to advert in our general Report,) yet we have not considered that an inquiry into technical education came directly within the scope of our Commission, nor could we now undertake it without interposing a longer delay in making our Report than we should wish. But considering the great importance of the subject we venture

to suggest for the consideration of Your Majesty's Government whether a special inquiry into the state and effects of technical education abroad, and particularly in France, Germany, and Switzerland, should not be instituted in whatever manner may appear to Your Majesty's Government best calculated to obtain full and accurate information about it.

Witness our hands and seals this second day of July 1867.

TAUNTON, CHAIRMAN.
LYTTELTON.
W. F. HOOK.
F. TEMPLE.
ANTHONY W. THOROLD.
THOMAS DYKE ACLAND, JUN.
EDWD. BAINES.
W. E. FORSTER.
P. ERLE.
JOHN STORRAR.

H. J. ROBY, *Secretary.*

CORRESPONDENCE RELATIVE TO TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

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CORRESPONDENCE RELATIVE TO TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

1. From Dr. Lyon Playfair to Lord Taunton, Chairman of the Schools Inquiry Commission.

My Lord, London, May 15, 1867.

As you desire that I should put in writing the substance of the conversation which I had the honour of having with your Lordship this morning, I willingly comply with your request.

I have just returned from Paris, where I acted as a Juror in one of the classes of the Exhibition. In this capacity I had no other opportunities than any other Juror of forming a judgment in regard to it; but having had the charge of the working of the Juries in the Exhibitions of 1851 and 1862 I naturally made the acquaintance of many eminent men of different nations, and meeting with a large number of them congregated on the International Juries in Paris, I endeavoured to gather their opinions as to the position which England occupied in this great industrial competition.

I am sorry to say that, with very few exceptions, a singular accordance of opinion prevailed that our country had shown little inventiveness and made but little progress in the peaceful arts of industry since 1862. Deficient representation in some of the industries might have accounted for this judgment against us, but when we find that out of 90 classes there are scarcely a dozen in which preeminence is unhesitatingly awarded to us, this plea must be abandoned. My own opinion is worthy only of the confidence which might be supposed to attach to my knowledge of the chemical arts; but when I found some of our chief mechanical and civil engineers lamenting the want of progress in their industries, and pointing to the wonderful advances which other nations are making; when I found our chemical, and even textile, manufacturers uttering similar complaints, I naturally devoted attention to elicit their views as to the causes. So far as I could gather them by conversation, the one cause upon which there was most unanimity of conviction is that France, Prussia, Austria, Belgium, and Switzerland possess good systems of industrial education for the masters and managers of factories and workshops, and that England possesses none. A second cause was also generally, though not so universally, admitted, that we had suffered from the want of cordiality between the employers of labour and workmen, engendered by the numerous strikes, and more particularly by that rule of many Trades' Unions that men shall work upon an average ability,

without giving free scope to the skill and ability which they may individually possess.

Dumas, well known as a *savant*, and who, from his position as a Senator of France, and President of the Municipal Council, has many opportunities of forming a correct judgment, assured me that technical education had given a great impulse to the industry of France. In going through the Exhibition, whenever anything excellent in French manufacture strikes his attention, his invariable question is, "Was the manager of this establish-" ment a pupil of the *Ecole Centrale des Arts et Manufactures?*" and in the great majority of cases he received a reply in the affirmative. General Morin, so well known as the Director of the *Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers*, has lately sat on a Commission to examine into the state of technical education in other countries, and to extend it in France, and he informed me that their recommendations were likely to be promptly and largely acted upon. I mention for your Lordship's information that General Morin was of opinion that the best system for the technical education of *workmen* is to be found in Austria, though the higher instruction of masters and managers is better illustrated in France, Prussia, and Switzerland.

In 1853 I published a little work on "Industrial Education on the Continent," in which I pointed out that as an inevitable result of the attention given to it abroad, and its neglect in England, other nations must advance in industry at a much greater rate than our own country. I fear that this result is already attained for many of our staple industries. But as my opinion is only that of an individual, I trust that it may accord with the objects of the Commission over which your Lordship presides, to take the evidence of some of the leading jurors, many of whom had as good opportunities as myself of judging of the position which our country has taken in this great international competition.

Permit me also to make another suggestion. My inquiry of 1853 into Industrial Education on the Continent was a private one, and had neither official aid nor sanction, and is now antiquated. It would be important that the Government, either through your Commission, or through the Committee of Council on Education, should hold an official inquiry on this subject, and should tell the people of England authoritatively what are the means by which the great states are attaining an intellectual pre-eminence among the industrial classes, and how they are making this to bear on the rapid progress of their national industries.

My Lord, I have, &c.

LYON PLAYFAIR.

The Right Hon.
Lord Taunton.

2. (CIRCULAR.)

Schools Inquiry Commission,
2, Victoria Street, S.W.,
May 30, 1867.

SIR,

I AM instructed by Her Majesty's Schools Inquiry Commissioners to send to you a copy of a letter lately addressed to their chairman by Dr. Lyon Playfair, and to request that you will favour them by stating whether you agree with the substance of that letter.

I have, &c.
H. J. ROBY.

The above circular was sent to some eminent jurors and others. The answers which have been received are from the following gentlemen. The name of the subject with which they were respectively connected is added in italics:—

Dr. David Price. (*Iron.*)
Prof. Tyndall, F.R.S., Royal Institution, Albemarle Street (*Physics*).
J. E. McConnell, C.E. (*Locomotives.*)
James Young, Esq., of Limefield by West Calder. (*Chemical Manufactures.*)
J. Scott Russell, Esq., F.R.S. (*Naval Architecture.*)
Captain Beaumont, R.E., Junior United Service Club. (*General Machinery.*)
Peter Graham, Esq., of Jackson & Graham's, Oxford Street. (*Furniture and Carpets.*)
E. W. Cooke, R. A. (*Glass and Artistic design.*)
E. Huth, Esq., of Leeds. (*Woollens.*)
W. Spotten, Esq., Belfast. (*Flax.*)
R. Mallet, Esq., C.E. (*Engineering.*)
Rev. Canon Norris, M.A. (*Education.*)
Prof. Frankland, F.R.S., Royal Institution, Albemarle Street. (*Chemistry.*)
John Fowler, Esq., Pres. I.C.E.
Warington W. Smyth, Esq., F.R.S., School of Mines, Jermyn Street. (*Mining.*)
A. J. Mundella, Esq., Nottingham. (*Hosiery, &c.*)

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1. From Rev. Canon Norris, M.A., late one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools.

My Lord, June 3, 1867.

During my four weeks' work at Paris as the English juror of Class 89 (primary instruction), I had more than one conversation with the English jurors of other classes on the subject to which Dr. Lyon Playfair's letter has invited your Lordship's attention.

Two questions are raised by that letter:—

1. Is England really losing her advanced position in those industries which involve the application of science to production?
2. If so, is it due to our comparative backwardness in the teaching of what, for shortness sake, is called applied science?

In reply to the first question I must say that, without any exception, it seemed to be the impression of those with whom I spoke on the subject. Only with special reference to one of the grounds on which Dr. Playfair bases his judgment I would venture to suggest some caution. I do not think that a comparison of the awards made to the several nations by the International Jury is a trustworthy evidence of the respective merits of those nations.

The upshot of my experience of the jury work was this, that these international exhibitions had already outgrown the conditions under which the justice of such awards could be considered at all certain.

However, Dr. Playfair's opinion is by no means made to rest on this ground only. He speaks from a large and independent knowledge of the subject; and, as I have said, I found the opinion universal among those with whom I spoke.

I come then to the second question:—Assuming that we are making less industrial progress than France, Austria, and Prussia, how far is this due to England's backwardness in the technical education of her artisans?

And here, very deliberately, I must confess that my examination of the things sent from Austrian, French, and Prussian schools, compared in my own mind, not with what England sent (for we were not at all fairly represented), but with my own knowledge of what England might have sent, led me to believe that while in the matter of primary education we were (to say the least) well abreast of those three nations, yet in the matter of higher instruction, of all that tends to convert the mere *workman* into the *artisan*, Austria, France, and Prussia were clearly passing us.

I have, &c.

The Lord Taunton, J. P. Norris.
&c. &c.

2. From JOHN TYNDALL, Esq., F.R.S., Professor of Physics in the Royal School of Mines.

SIR, June 3, 1867.

I HARDLY think that an Exhibition in Paris furnishes the means of accurately testing the comparative merits of English and French education.

The simple inconvenience of transport tends to render England worse represented than France.

Still on other grounds I would express a general concurrence in the views of Dr. Playfair. The facilities for scientific education are far greater on the Continent than in England, and where such differences exist, England is sure to fall behind as regards those industries into which the scientific element enters.

In fact, I have long entertained the opinion, that in virtue of the better education provided by continental nations, England must one day—and that no distant one—find herself outstripped by those nations, both in the arts of peace and war. As sure as knowledge is power this must be the result.

I am, &c.

H. J. Roby, Esq., JOHN TYNDALL.
&c. &c.

---

3. From EDWARD HUTH, Esq.

Oakfield Lodge, Huddersfield,

SIR, June 3, 1867.

I HAVE read with much interest the letter of Dr. Lyon Playfair, addressed to Lord Taunton, on the industrial or want of industrial education in England, a copy of which was enclosed in your favour of the 31st of May. The great experience and high authority of Dr. Playfair might almost be sufficient to prove his case. I as a humble individual can only say that I agree with him *in toto*.

Having closely examined the woollen textile fabrics during the Exhibition in 1851, and having acted as juror for these fabrics in the Exhibition of 1862, as well as the present one in Paris, I had opportunities of comparing the progress that has been made by various countries in this important branch of industry.

I am sorry to say that, although we may still be unsurpassed in many of our productions, we no longer hold that pre-eminence which was accorded to us in the Exhibition of 1851.

Although an industry which has attained a considerable state of perfection does naturally not advance in 10 years as rapidly as the one which was at that period less fully developed, I fear that the enormous strides that have of late been made by our

continental rivals in France, Belgium, Prussia, and Austria will make it daily more difficult for our woollen manufacturers to hold, not only their former prominent position, but even in many cases to maintain their present one.

It is high time that not only the Government, but that every individual who loves his country should make thorough inquiries into the causes of such a state of things.

Like Dr. Playfair, I made it a point during my stay in Paris to converse with many English as well as foreign jurors on this point.

I found my (for a long time previously entertained) convictions entirely confirmed, that it is the want of industrial education in this country which prevents our manufacturers from making that progress which other nations are making. From all I could see and learn I found both masters and foremen of other countries much more scientifically educated than our own.

This, however, is not all. The workmen themselves of other countries have a far superior education than ours, many of whom have none whatever. Their productions show clearly that there is not a machine working a machine, but that brains sit at the loom, and intelligence stands at the spinning wheel.

Seeing and feeling the results of this as thoroughly as I do, you must permit me for one moment to travel beyond the contents of Dr. Playfair's letter, and ask of what use is an industrial scientific education to our working population if they have not had a good elementary education to begin with?

This, I know, opens a wide and fruitful subject of controversy, but one which one day must be grappled with, and the sooner this is done the better it will be for England.

Voluntary education has done much, but the progress is too slow, and the great question is, whether compulsory education must be resorted to.

This, I know will grate harshly on many an ear, and so it did on mine some years ago.

Seeing what it has done for other countries, and being convinced that a good general education is the great secret of their rapid strides in art and manufacture, I have entirely changed my opinion, and I am glad to say that the many eminent men in different stations of life with whom I conversed in Paris on this subject are all of the same opinion.

Let wiser heads than mine find out the right way to accomplish this and to make it acceptable to all.

Let this national elementary education once be established throughout the country, and you have a fine nucleus for scientific industrial schools, in nearly all our manufacturing towns at least, in our mechanics' institutions, wherever such institutions are properly conducted.

Pray excuse me for going so far beyond the inquiry contained in your letter; my only plea for doing so is the deep interest

I feel in education and the advancement of all branches of industry in England.

I have, &c.

H. J. Roby, Esq., EDWARD HUTH.
Schools Inquiry Commission,
London.

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4. (Second Letter.)

Oakfield Lodge, Huddersfield,
SIR, July 1, 1867.

A SHORT absence from home prevented me from returning the enclosed sooner.

To avoid misunderstanding I desire to make only one remark in explanation of what I say about mechanics' institutions forming a nucleus for scientific industrial schools.

Of course I do not mean to say that our mechanics' institutions could do the work of the higher industrial schools which I should like to see established by Government for those who are able to pay a reasonable price for the instruction they receive in them.

But if a general system of sound elementary education were to be introduced in this country, our mechanics' institutions could take a far higher standing in the promotion of scientific instruction to the really working population instead of being compelled, as they now are, to confine themselves almost exclusively to elementary instruction.

I have, &c.

H. J. Roby, Esq., EDWARD HUTH.
&c. &c.

---

5. From EDWARD FRANKLAND, ESQ., F.R.S., Professor of Chemistry in the Royal School of Mines.

Royal College of Chemistry,
315, Oxford Street, W.,
SIR, June 4, 1867.

I AM favoured with your communication of the 31st ult., enclosing a letter addressed by Dr. Lyon Playfair to the Chairman of Her Majesty's Schools Inquiry Commissioners, and requesting me to state whether I agree with the substance of that letter. In reply I beg to say that Dr. Lyon Playfair's communication substantially expresses my own convictions in regard to the matters therein mentioned.

As a juror in Class 44 of the present Paris Exhibition, I was not only forcibly struck by the want of evidence of progress in the different branches of chemical manufactures carried on in Great Britain, but still more so at the great advances made by other nations, but more especially by Germany, France, and Switzerland, in respect of such manufactures since the year 1862, when, as a Juror in the corresponding class, I had also an opportunity of comparing the chemical manufactures of different nations.

I quite agree with Dr. Playfair in referring this want of progress in the manufactures of this country chiefly to the almost utter lack of a good preparatory education for those destined to take part in industrial pursuits. This great defect in the school and college education of England affects the masters and managers of our factories even more deeply than the workmen themselves. The former have but rarely had any opportunities of making themselves acquainted with the fundamental laws and principles of physics and chemistry; they therefore find themselves engaged in pursuits for which their previous education has afforded them no preparation, and hence their inability to originate inventions and improvements. It is true that such men not unfrequently imagine themselves inventors, and the yearly files of patent specifications abound with instances of their so-called inventions. The great loss of time and money attending these futile patents would be rendered impossible by a very moderate, if accurate, knowledge of chemical and physical science.

In the polytechnic schools of Germany and Switzerland the future manufacturer or manager is made familiar with those laws and applications of the great natural forces which must always form the basis of every intelligent and progressive industry. It seems that at length this superiority in previous training is more than counterbalancing the undoubted advantages which this country possesses in raw material.

I have, &c.

H. J. Roby, Esq., E. FRANKLAND.
&c. &c.

---

6. From JOHN FOWLER, ESQ., Pres. I.C.E.

2, Queen Square Place, Westminster, S.W.,
SIR, June 5, 1867.

I FIND it difficult to answer your question precisely in the terms in which you put it.

I do not quite agree with Dr. Playfair that a comparison can be usefully made between Exhibitions so nearly together in time as those of 1862 and 1867, nor that "little inventiveness" and "little progress" in the peaceful arts have been lately made by this country.

With these reservations, however, I may say that I agree generally with that which may be considered the substance of the letter, viz., that foreign nations have made greater manufacturing progress than England since the Exhibition of 1851.

This, in fact, was the opinion which I publicly expressed on the 8th May, at the annual dinner of the Institution of Civil Engineers, and I have been glad to see a confirmation of it by Dr. Playfair and others.

I am, &c.

H. J. Roby, Esq., JOHN FOWLER.
Schools Inquiry Commission,
2, Victoria Street.

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7. From James E. McConnell, Esq., C.E.

Dean's Yard, Westminster, S.W.,
June 7, 1867.

Sir,

I have read Dr. Lyon Playfair's letter to Lord Taunton on the subject of the position which England occupies in the great industrial competition in Paris.

I agree with Dr. Playfair in his views generally, and am satisfied as to the comparatively small progress we have shown since 1862, and the great advance which continental nations have made during that period.

In the class of which I was juror for England (No. 63) I made a very careful examination and comparison of our locomotive engines, carriages, and railway machinery, apparatus, and material as shown by this country, with the same articles exhibited by France, Germany, and Belgium.

I am firmly convinced that our former superiority either in material or workmanship no longer exists; in fact, there are engines shown there made in France and Germany equal to those of the best English makers.

It requires no skill to predict that, unless we adopt a system of technical education for our workmen in this country, we shall soon not even hold our own in cheapness of cost as well as in excellence of quality of our mechanical productions.

I found that on the Continent there are now a number of workmen's schools established, in which a clever mechanic can qualify himself for any scientific position in his business.

In England our mechanics' institutions are more like reading clubs. Classes are neglected, and in consequence when a good workman is selected for a foreman's place, he is generally found wanting in technical knowledge.

We have treated our workmen too much like a machine, but this must be remedied if we are to maintain our ground.

Having for about 25 years superintended large numbers of English workmen, I can speak on this point practically.

Fully impressed with the great importance of this subject, I invited several of my brother jurymen and exhibitors to meet at our hotel in Paris, to consider the best course to adopt in the matter. At one of these meetings we had the pleasure of Dr. Playfair's attendance.

I may mention that I hear a movement has already begun to draw the attention of the public in England to the subject, and sums of money have been offered by individuals to assist the object. It appears to me, however, that Government should take the matter in hand, and the public funds should be forthcoming to establish these technical schools, not in London, but in the districts where the operations requiring such knowledge are being carried on.

Thus there ought to be mining schools in South Wales,

Staffordshire, and Durham, and machinery and engine schools in like manner placed in Manchester, Glasgow, &c.

It will afford me much pleasure, and I shall be ready to be of service if required in this matter in which I feel the greatest interest and know to be nationally of vital importance.

I have, &c.

H. J. Roby, Esq., &c. &c.

JAMES E. McCONNELL.

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8. From CAPT. FREDERICK BEAUMONT, R.E.

71, Avenue Champs Elysées, Paris,
June 10, 1867.

SIR,

IN reply to your letter of the 30th ultimo, in which you are good enough to ask, by order of Her Majesty's Schools Inquiry Commissioners, my opinion on a letter addressed to them by Dr. Lyon Playfair, I have the honour to state that in the substance of that letter I concur. Speaking only with reference to machinery, the department with which I am immediately connected, there can be no doubt as to the immense strides which foreign mechanical engineering has lately made, notably I think in the case of France and Belgium, and by which they are rapidly overtaking the industrial power of Great Britain.

My impression is that this advance has been greatly owing to a successful copying of English designs, and to the use of English machine tools. Of course, did the foreigners merely confine themselves to copying, they would never surpass us, but while following that which in our mechanical designs is good, they are also seeking (and that not unsuccessfully) to apply theoretical knowledge in a way which, to my humble judgment, shows that they will soon have little to learn from us.

I would allude notably to the economical use of steam, though no doubt their inventive faculties have there been quickened by the high price of fuel on the Continent. I cannot from my own knowledge speak of the means of instruction available to the working public abroad, but I have always understood it to be superior to our own; and assuming it to be so, I cannot conceive any reason which would better than that account for a difference of industrial progress.

I trust I may not be deemed presumptuous in stating what I believe to be a very great want in England, viz., such an institution as the well known "Arts et Metiers" of Paris. I know of no national institution where the public of our own country may study practical mechanics and the arts appertaining thereto. Such a one would, in my opinion, be valuable not only to working men and their superiors, but to engineers. It should be an evidence of the most advanced mechanical knowledge of the country; and while teaching primarily through the eye by the models and

machines exhibited, it would naturally form the focus of other means of instruction by lectures, classes, &c.

I apprehend it is only when taken up by Government that such an institution would assume proportions sufficient to be really effective as a means of national education.

I have, &c.

FRED. BEAUMONT,
Capt. R. Engineers.

H. J. Roby, Esq.,
&c. &c.

---

9. From WARINGTON W. SMYTH, ESQ., M.A., F.R.S., Lecturer on Mining and Mineralogy in the Royal School of Mines.

28, Jermyn Street, S.W.,
June 14, 1867.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 31st ultimo, inquiring, for Her Majesty's Schools Inquiry Commissioners, whether I agree with the substance of Dr. Playfair's letter of the 15th ultimo, addressed to Lord Taunton.

Having gone carefully, as juror, through the objects exhibited in Class 47 at the Paris Exhibition, and having also examined with much interest many of the productions in Class 40, as well as other portions of the Exhibition, I am bound to admit that our British portion of the display was generally meagre and defective, partly from tolerably obvious causes. I was not so much struck by this lack of fair representation of many of our branches of industry, as I was by the decidedly greater progress which has been made of late years by several of the continental nations, and that too in several departments which used formerly to be considered almost exclusively our own.

As regards the broad question of technical education, I will only add, that the greater proportional advancement made by France, Prussia, and Belgium in mining, colliery working, and metallurgy, appears to me to be due, not to the workmen, but in great part to the superior training and attention to the general knowledge of their subject, observable among the managers and sub-officers of the works. No candid person can deny that they are far better educated, as a rule, than those who hold similar positions in Britain.

I have, &c.

WARINGTON W. SMYTH.

H. J. Roby, Esq.,
&c. &c.

10. From Robert Mallet, Esq., F.R.S.

Offices, 7, Westminster Chambers,
Victoria Street, London, S.W.,
June 17, 1867.

My Lord,

In reply to the question put to me by circular of the 31st ultimo (signed by Mr. H. J. Roby), in reference to the letter of Dr. Lyon Playfair of the 15th ultimo, addressed to your Lordship, a printed copy of which was enclosed to me, I beg to state that,—1st. I do fully agree with Dr. Playfair in opinion that a better system of technical education for all classes connected with industrial pursuits has become a pressing necessity in Great Britain; that immediate steps ought to be taken for organizing and securing legislatively such a system; and that large and accurate inquiry as to the state of such education in foreign countries, and as to the want of it at home, ought to be made under such sanction as will be best calculated to rouse the public mind in England from the apathy and ignorance which prevail upon the subject.

The matter is far from new to me. A university education, with a natural love for scientific investigations, the circumstances of my life, in large part engaged as the active managing partner of large engineering works, and of late years as a civil engineer, a more than common travel and knowledge of foreign countries, in their arts and educational systems, &c., &c., have long convinced me that, unless by a vast improvement in our own educational system, general and technical, the pre-eminence of England (whose *power*, more than that of any other empire that has ever existed, is based upon her industry) must decline, and with a rapidly accelerating pace, in relation to the other great nations of the world.

For more than twelve years past I have urged this publicly, and in various ways, for which I refer you to many printed documents in various periodicals, &c., and recently to articles by me in the pages of the "Practical Mechanics' Journal," and "The Engineers' Journal," as also to my inaugural address, as President of the Institution of Civil Engineers of Ireland, of last year, and to an address delivered by me this year before the Society of Foreman Engineers of London, and printed by that Society, &c.

2nd. I do not quite agree with Dr. Playfair in his view of the Paris Exhibition, upon which alone he appears to base his conclusion as to the need of better education, &c.

The degree of representation of the great industries of Great Britain in the Paris Exhibition is no safe test of the relative position of any one industry in Great Britain and abroad. From many circumstances, with which I need not here trouble you, England is in various industries either ill represented, or not represented at Paris at all, while some foreign nations are

represented upon a scale preposterously beyond their productive status; for example, in *spinning*, England, the first country as to that in the world, appears almost "no where," while Belgium would, to the superficial eye, appear the greatest spinning country in the world.

My views, therefore, have been formed not only long before this Paris Exhibition, but independently of it, except in so far as that it has upon the whole tended to confirm my previous conclusions.

I have, &c.

ROBERT MALLET, F.R.S., M.A.,
Juror, Cl. 53.

The Right Hon.
Lord Taunton.

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11. (Second Letter).

Offices, 7, Westminster Chambers,
Victoria Street, London, S.W.,
June 27, 1867.

MY LORD,

I PRESUME it is proposed to pursue the subject of technical education in Great Britain, as raised by Dr. Lyon Playfair's letter, by some form of inquiry. 1st. As to the institutions and methods in operation abroad in several countries for securing technical education. 2nd. As to our needs of such in England, and how these may be best supplied. Having long given attention to these matters, I hope I may not be deemed impertinent if I offer a suggestion as to the *mode* by which, as I conceive, the information desirable under the first head may best be secured.

The countries in which the systems of technical education now working are such as to demand our full acquaintance with them, are France, Prussia, Belgium, Bavaria, Switzerland, and Austria, in the first rank at least these.

In all these countries a large quantity of information exists in the form of state and other printed documents, manuals, *brochures*, and treatises on education, &c., &c. These should be collected, and a report should be obtained from each country by a technical and learned native professor, in which the system in his country should be described fully and clearly, and a *resumé* given of all the literature of the subject. The *six* reports thus obtained should go into the hands of some one competent man in England to condense and compare, and report upon, as to *facts only*. You would then have something like an exact basis as to the first head to start consideration upon.

The more usual course with us in England is to *send* out a roving commission of Englishmen to collect information. From want of familiarity with Continental tongues and habits of thought, and from many other causes, my own observation leads me to think that very little information is thus obtained; and

that such commissions are little more than holiday excursions at the public expense. For this I could appeal to some printed reports.

From the other course of proceeding I am satisfied a crop of highly valuable information might be expected.

I have, &c.

The Right Hon. Lord Taunton. — Robert Mallet, F.R.S., M.A.

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12. From Peter Graham, Esq. (of Messrs. Jackson & Graham).

29, 33, 34, 35, 37, and 38, Oxford Street, W.

Sir, June 20, 1867.

I have delayed replying to your circular of 31st May until I had the opportunity of obtaining information on some points confirmatory of my impressions on the subject of Dr. Lyon Playfair's letter. I agree with him that a system of technical education must tend to the improvement of the manufactures of every country in which it is in operation, and that the advances made by some other countries may to some extent be attributed to its influence. It must, however, be borne in mind that if we have not made the same relative progress as other nations in some branches of industry, we have made greater relative progress in others (the natural consequence of International Exhibitions and greater freedom of trade), and that the Exhibition at Paris does not fairly represent the progress made since 1862, or the present state of several of our most important manufactures.

I may say, briefly, that of all our great textile manufactures the only ones fully and fairly represented are Scotch tweeds and Irish linens.

I apprehend great danger to our manufacturing interests, and to the general prosperity of our country, from the action and influence of Trades Unions, which tend to reduce, as far as possible, the intelligent and industrious workman to the same level as the stupid and lazy.

I have, &c.

H. J. Roby, Esq. &c. &c. — Peter Graham.

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13. From David S. Price, Esq., Ph.D.

26, Great George Street, Westminster,

My Lord, June 22, 1867.

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of a letter from the Secretary of the Schools Inquiry Commission requesting that I would favour the Committee by stating whether I

agreed with the substance of a letter addressed to your Lordship by Dr. Lyon Playfair, a copy of which was enclosed.

Before proceeding to comply with this request I would wish to remark that Dr. Playfair's letter refers to progress in the peaceful arts, as exemplified at the Paris Exhibition, as a whole, and is general in its conclusions.

My time at Paris was almost exclusively devoted to the jury work of my class, a very large one—chemical and pharmaceutical products—and as yet I have only had an opportunity of examining those other sections of the Exhibition in which I take a special interest, the metallurgy of iron, ceramics, ordnance, &c.; it is, therefore, not possible for me to say whether I agree with the substance of Dr. Playfair's letter. I will, however, state my opinion of so much of the Exhibition as came under my notice, and then venture to give my views upon the second part of the letter, which refers to the subject of the technical education of the working man.

As far as relates to chemical products, I consider that the exhibition made by Great Britain is a "deficient representation," and will not enable foreigners to form a correct estimate of the nature and extent of chemical manufactures now carried on in this country.

In reference to the British exhibition of iron and steel, it must not be overlooked that most of our largest ironworks are unrepresented,—Mr. Bessemer's, Coalbrook Dale, Weardale, Earl Granville's Shelton, Ebbw Vale, Aberdare, Plymouth, and many others too numerous to name; that Sheffield is only represented by two or three makers,—a fact that was considered so remarkable at the time that space was applied for, by intending exhibitors, that it was brought to the special notice of the Associate Commissioners invited to confer with His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales at the South Kensington Museum; and that what is shown in Class 44 is, as a rule, injudiciously exhibited, contrasting painfully with the taste and spirit evinced by the French in their arrangements in the same class. Great credit is also due to the French ironmasters for the skill displayed in some departments of manufacture, especially in that of girders, —a branch of rolling to which our countrymen have not yet seriously devoted their attention.

Those interested in the metallurgy of iron are much impressed at the wide dissemination which the Bessemer process has attained on the Continent as evidenced in Paris. In reference to the rapid spread of this remarkable invention, it would be instructive if the history of its introduction abroad could be published. The treatment which our eminent inventor has received,—more particularly in Prussia,—if it were known, might occasion grave reflections in the minds of Englishmen as to how far they are justified in granting the protection of their Patent Laws to the subjects of a kingdom which shows so little regard for the inventive genius of their own. More than this I

should not like to state. The finest specimens of Bessemer steel are exhibited in the Austrian department, and are from the Neuberg works.

In connexion with these splendid achievements it may be well to inform your Lordship what I have learnt from Mr. Bessemer respecting the introduction of his process into Austria. Mr. Bessemer informs me that the Government erected model works of his process, and invited the iron and steel manufacturers to inspect them, and to forward samples of their pig-iron, in order to have them tested as to their adaptability for the process. The success of the enterprise is complete, and the Austrians may congratulate themselves upon the brilliant prospect which it promises for the development of their iron industry.

There is one little thing, however, which they have omitted to do, and that is to reward the inventor for the great benefit he has conferred upon the empire. Possibly a knowledge of the history of the iron and steel manufactures in our own country may have afforded both Austria and Prussia a plea as well as a precedent for their injustice and ingratitude to British inventiveness.

It is unnecessary for me to say anything respecting the exhibition made by England in ceramics, as a unanimous verdict of approval has been given as to the manner in which our leading manufacturers have supported the reputation they had acquired at former exhibitions. As regards the British exhibition of ordnance, there must be many opinions as to the merits of our guns, but as regards the display there can be but one, and that is, that it redounds to the credit of the officials at the Arsenal.

Before leaving the subject of the Exhibition, I would wish to state my conviction that it is most important that these International Competitions should not be allowed to degenerate into a means for advertising, and that it behoves those who are intrusted with their organization to see that the several departments of industry are intrusted to men who take an active interest in them, and are thus a guarantee that every endeavour will be made to have them fairly and properly represented, which is not the case on the present occasion, so far at least as refers to Classes 40 and 44.

In reference to the second part of Dr. Playfair's letter, recommending that an official inquiry should be made into the means "by which the great states are attaining an intellectual pre-"eminence among the industrial classes, and how they are "making this to bear on the rapid progress of their national "industries," I would beg to observe that I believe the sooner we are acquainted with the facts the better.

Whilst assenting to the proposition, I must distinctly state that I do not agree with Dr. Playfair that the technical education of working men is the most important method for the maintenance of our industrial supremacy. The information gleaned by acting upon his suggestion would be instructive, and great

good would result from its application, but what is really wanted for this country, and is of vital consequence to our future prosperity, is a higher scientific culture of those who are likely, in the natural course of events, to be master manufacturers, so that when discoveries are made they may fructify and not stagnate or decay, as has too often been the case, for want of intelligence on the part of those who command capital and works to perceive their merits; and that they, the manufacturers, may be able to appreciate and adequately remunerate the scientific talent that this country is, and always will be, able to afford them.

I would add further, that no reformation bearing upon industrial progress is more required than in the Legislature, and it is a reproach to the country that science is not represented in Parliament.

It is only a few years since that our classic and commercial statesmen repudiated the idea of the exhaustion of coal in England, whilst last year they, in a fit of alarm, organized a Commission to inquire into its probable duration.

It would be well if an investigation were made as to what have been the results of the teachings in science of the German universities; what Liebig has done for modern chemistry, and how the system inaugurated by him at the small University of Giessen has spread throughout the world, and what benefits have resulted from it; what we owe to the teachings of other chemists, the physicists, metallurgists, and geologists of those excellent seats of learning. Whilst advocating the necessity for the dissemination of scientific training in England, I must not omit to bestow a passing tribute of commendation to the success of those institutions of recent date which were established to supply a want that existed many years since. I allude to the Royal College of Chemistry, of which the late Prince Consort was the President, the School of Mines, and the colleges in the metropolis where scientific departments have been founded. Of the two former I can speak from positive knowledge. In the first named, many of the men who have taught, and not a few of those who have studied there, have not only enriched chemical science by their researches, but have left a permanent mark upon the leading industries of this country. From the School of Mines have emanated men who in metallurgy and geology have greatly extended the application of those sciences, nor is this to be wondered at, when we consider the reputation of the professors under whom they have studied. It is, however, a well-known fact that the public do not rightly appreciate the education that this institution is capable of affording, and that comparatively but few of the sons of manufacturers avail themselves of its advantages.

Before concluding I would beg to call your Lordship's particular attention to a plan proposed by the eminent chemist, Professor Frémy, of the Institute. It is one most just and wise.

He proposes that young chemists of talent, who are desirous of devoting their time to the advancement of science, and therefore for the benefit of mankind (and there are always many, not only willing but anxious to do so,) should be liberally supported by the State. I quote the plan from memory, and can therefore only give the outline of his project. Permit me to suggest that your Lordship should bring this excellent idea to the notice of the noble and learned Chancellor of the University of London, who from his well-known zeal in the cause of education, and from his position, is better able than any one else to obtain the evidence of scientific men as to its value, and, if approved of, to secure its adoption in this country. The same principle might well be extended to the other departments of science which bear upon industrial progress.

In conclusion I must express my firm belief that extended scientific education is of the highest consequence to us if we wish to retain our present position in the scale of nations, that it will mostly benefit the future master manufacturer, that it must tend to elevate the social position of the intelligent working man, and to create a greater sympathy between master and man than at present prevails, and if it do this, the evils which threaten to impede, if not to paralyse, our national progress may be averted.

I have, &c.

The Right Hon. Lord Taunton, &c. &c.

DAVID S. PRICE, Ph.D.

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14. From J. SCOTT RUSSELL, Esq., F.R.S.

5, Westminster Chambers, S.W.,
June 24, 1867.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 31st ult., enclosing copy of a letter addressed to the Chairman of the Schools Inquiry Commission by Dr. Lyon Playfair, and inquiring whether I agree with the substance of that letter.

In reply, I have to state that in much that Dr. Playfair has said I entirely agree, and that from my own recent personal inquiries into the state of technical education in Switzerland, Germany, and France I have reluctantly come to the conclusion that it is much more advanced in those countries than in ours.

As a Juror in the Paris Exhibition I have come to the conclusion that the higher class of education given in each of those countries to the workmen in its skilled trades, as well as the superior professional education given to the higher classes of men employed in technical professions, is everywhere visible in the works exhibited by those countries. And I attribute the surprising strides those countries have been making for the last

ten years in many of the great staple branches of mechanical construction and manufacture to the admirable scientific and practical training which the Governments of those countries provide for their working classes.

I enclose a memorandum, which at the request of some other jurors I prepared in Paris last month, as an expression both of my own opinion and that of many others with whom I have conversed on this subject. I may say that we had felt it our duty in some way to call the attention of Government and the public to this matter, when Dr. Lyon Playfair's letter appeared in the "Times."

So convinced was I of the importance of technical education to this country, that before the opening of the present Exhibition in Paris I took the opportunity of an invitation which had been given me to assist a meeting of the Society of Arts in the Technical Museum attached to the University of Edinburgh, to address the meeting on this subject, and I enclose also a newspaper report of that address.

I have, &c.

Henry J. Roby, Esq., M.A., &c. &c.

J. Scott Russell.

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15. (Enclosed in Mr. Scott Russell's Letter of the 24th June 1867.)

Memorandum.

The fourth great International Exhibition has afforded an excellent opportunity for marking the relative progress of different countries in the arts, manufactures, and trades which contribute to the wealth and power of nations. We have especially noted the progress of other nations in those mechanical and constructive arts and trades in which, in 1851, England exhibited pre-eminent excellence. We have to record that in many of these some other nations appear to have made much more rapid progress than ourselves, so that we are *relatively* falling off. And we especially note that our falling off is not in unimportant departments, but in some of those which had formerly constituted our staple excellence.

We have to specify that those branches, in which other countries have now shown more rapid advancement, are some of our own great manufactures of steel and iron, steam machinery, locomotive engines, and tools and manufacturing machinery in general. We do not say that in all of these other nations have excelled us, in some they have not yet equalled us. But what we do feel, and therefore frankly state is, that their progress has, in the last 16 years since the first Exhibition of 1851, been remarkably greater than ours.

There are other branches of arts and manufactures in which possibly the reverse is the case. Glass and pottery, and the

arts of design and construction of beautiful patterns both in form and colour, have made remarkable progress throughout England during the same period, we therefore confine our present remarks to the mechanical and constructive arts, not commonly called fine arts.

Dissatisfied with our national progress, we have naturally turned our minds to search for the cause of the progress of other nations and for the cure of our own deficiency. We find that during these years some nations have been occupied in diligently promoting the national education of the various classes of skilled mechanical workmen, for the purpose of giving skill to the unskilled and rendering the skilled more skilful. We find that some nations have gone so far as to have established in every considerable town technical schools for the purpose of teaching all the youths intended to be craftsmen those branches of science which relate most nearly to the principles of their future craft. Workers in metal are taught the nature of the mechanical powers with which they will have to work, and the chemical properties of the materials they will have to operate upon; engine builders are taught the principles of heat and steam, and the nature of the engines they have to make and work; shipbuilders are taught the laws of construction, hydraulics, and hydrostatics; and dyers and painters are taught the laws of chemistry and colour. All skilled youth are taught geometry, drawing, and calculation; and in many countries every youth who shows great talent in any department is promoted to a higher training school, and there educated at the public cost.

Besides these local schools, other countries have technical colleges of a very high class for the education of masters and foremen in engineering, mechanics, merchandise, and other practical and technical professions.

We have not failed to notice that it is precisely those nations which have been systematically giving a course of preparatory training and education to their population in their skilled trades that have shown the most marked progress in national industry in these successive Exhibitions.

Prussia, Switzerland, Belgium, France, America seem to make progress in proportion to their excellence of educational training:—Prussia in steel, iron, and general engineering work; Switzerland in scientific engineering, machinery, and watch and telegraph work, and in textile manufactures; Belgium in metal working and mechanical trades; France in metal work, and in steam engines, engineering structures, naval architecture, and steam navigation. All these nations seem to exhibit growing skill and progress in proportion to the excellence of the education and training they give to their manufacturing population.

It becomes therefore a serious national question for England and the English, whether they have or have not been wise in neglecting to take adequate measures of a national character for

the complete technical training of all the youth destined to skilled trades and occupations. By this training we do not on the one hand mean elementary education, nor on the other hand do we mean any substitute for a practical working apprenticeship. We mean a schooling midway between the elementary day school and the workshop, which the youth should enter after he knows reading, writing, and counting, in order to learn to apply his reading, writing, and calculation to the purpose of acquiring such knowledge of mathematics, mechanics, mineralogy, chemistry, drawing, &c., as shall fit him more aptly and perfectly afterwards to learn and to profit by the teaching of the workshop and the office. It is unquestionable that apprentices to trades, coming into the workshops with this preparation, will make greatly more rapid and certain progress than those who enter direct from the elementary school.

But in England we can scarcely as yet be said to possess such schools. Certainly they are not uniformly distributed over the towns of England; and it seems that in no country have they thriven or even existed except when organized and sustained by nations at large, acting through their governments.

We have therefore to recommend to the serious attention of the British nation the consideration of the importance of establishing a national system of technical and trade education.

Paris, May 1867. J. Scott Russell.

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16. From E. W. Cooke, Esq., R.A., F.R.S.

The Ferns, Hyde Park Gate, South Kensington.

My Lord, June 28, 1867.

Having read with very great interest Dr. Lyon Playfair's admirable letter to your Lordship, I beg to state, though with considerable regret, that I am compelled to agree entirely with the opinions and conclusions expressed in that letter.

During a very careful and impartial examination of the varied productions of European countries in the International Exhibition at Paris, a multitude of instances met my eye which impressed me with the decided superiority of the industrial productions of the *Continent* over those of our own country. It must be distinctly understood, however, that I refer only to works of artistic taste—*not to Fine Art*—in matters connected with objects of useful and ornamental character belonging to the *peaceful* arts. With matters of *war*, whether military or naval, or the multitudinous inventions and triumphs in machinery I have nothing to say, having no experience in those departments; nor have I any knowledge of the numerous economic manufactures, removed in a great measure from such as are the result of fine taste and æsthetic feeling. In these latter objects it is that I feel the truth and justness of Dr. Playfair's broad and honest opinions. In very numerous instances I could not but

observe the great advance made in the design as well as execution of works during the last ten years, in which I had sanguinely hoped we in England would have greatly excelled, if not triumphed, over our continental neighbours. In this I am sorry to confess I have been disappointed, and am of opinion that it behoves the Executive Government and the chief municipal bodies of our country to lose not a moment in the consideration of this most important subject, in which the trade and commerce, the prosperity of our working men, and, I may say, our *National honour* are so vitally and so deeply concerned and interested.

I cannot at present enter into details, but your Lordship will perceive that I entirely concur in every word of Dr. Playfair's letter.

I have, &c.

To the Right Hon.
Lord Taunton,
&c. &c.

E. W. Cooke, R.A., F.R.S.

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17. From Wm. Spotten, Esq.

Sir, Belfast, June 29, 1867.

In reply to your letter of 27th instant, I beg to state that I agree with the substance of the enclosed letter.*

I am, &c.

H. J. Roby, Esq.
&c. &c.

Wm. Spotten.

[* The enclosed letter was Dr. Lyon Playfair's, as given above.]

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18. From A. J. Mundella, Esq.

Nottingham, June 29, 1867.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

In reply to the inquiry addressed to me through your secretary, I have the honour to state that in the main I agree with Dr. Lyon Playfair's letter of the 15th ultimo, but I am of opinion that art and industrial education without a thoroughly organized system of primary instruction will not remove the danger which threatens our manufacturing and commercial supremacy.

I trust it will not be deemed presumptuous if I lay briefly before you the result of my observation on a subject in which I have long been deeply interested.

The branch of industry with which I have been connected for thirty years past is the manufacture of hosiery. I am the managing partner of a firm employing five thousand (5,000) workpeople, with establishments in Nottingham, Derby, and Loughborough, employing more than four-fifths of the number and with branches at Chemnitz and Pausa in Saxony, employing about seven hundred persons.

In addition to the opportunities and experience which the superintendence of these establishments has afforded me, I have for many years past formed friendships with manufacturers in France and Germany. I have had free access to their warehouses and workshops, and I am as well acquainted with the progress of my own branch of industry in those countries as in England.

As the result of my observation I have for four or five years past been increasingly alarmed for our industrial supremacy, and my experience of the Paris Exhibition has only confirmed and strengthened my fears. In my own branch we still maintain the lead in the majority of articles, but the progress made by France and Germany since 1862 is truly astonishing, and it has been much greater than our own.

I am of opinion that Englishmen possess more energy, enterprise, and inventiveness than any other European nation. The best machines in my trade now at work in France and Germany are the inventions of Englishmen, and in most cases of uneducated workmen; but these machines of English invention are constructed and improved by men who have had the advantage of a superior industrial education. The largest hosiery machine shop in France is that of Monsieur Tailbours at St. Just; models of all the best English machines have been purchased and imported, and they are there improved and constructed on thoroughly scientific principles under the superintendence of a young man who, I was informed, took high honours at the school of the Government in Paris.

Precisely the same thing is taking place in Saxony, but the Saxons are in respect of education, both primary and industrial, much in advance of the French, and in my branch they are our most formidable rivals.

In Nottingham, where the best machinery in the world is required and used in the production of hosiery and lace, there is no such thing as industrial education, and, greatly as it is to be desired, I am acquainted with many good mechanics and superior workmen to whom it would be of no service, inasmuch as they can neither read nor write.

The contrast betwixt the workpeople of England and Saxony, engaged in the same industry, is most humiliating. I have had statistics taken of various workshops and rooms in factories in this district, and the frightful ignorance they reveal is disheartening and appalling. I was born and educated amongst the working classes, and all my life have been in close association with them, but I never realized the condition of the *lower masses* of our workpeople till I took the pains to examine them personally in the manner I have indicated.

In Saxony, our manager, an Englishman of superior intelligence, and greatly interested in education, during a residence of seven years has never yet met with a workman who cannot read or write. And not in the limited and imperfect manner in which the majority of English artizans are said to read and write, but

with a freedom and familiarity that enables them to enjoy reading and to conduct their correspondence in a creditable and often superior style. Some of the sons of our poorest workmen in Saxony are receiving a technical education at the Polytechnic schools, such as the sons of our manufacturers cannot hope to obtain.

Whilst, therefore, I believe that the English workman is possessed of greater natural capacity than any of his foreign competitors, I am of opinion that he is gradually losing the race through the superior intelligence which foreign governments are carefully developing in their artizans.

The influence of strikes and lockouts has been undoubtedly against industrial progress. But the worst practices of trades unions are the result of the gross ignorance of the majority of workmen who are connected with them. I succeeded nearly seven years ago in forming a board of arbitration and conciliation for the hosiery trade of this district, and no strike has taken place since its formation. Leicester has recently followed our example, and during the past week the lace trade has done the same. This is the only solution in my opinion of that difficulty.

The education of Germany is the result of a national organization which compels every parent to send his children to school, and, after having laid the foundation of a sound education, affords to all those who have the capacity and inclination the opportunity of acquiring such technical knowledge as may be useful in the department of industry for which they are destined.

If we are to maintain our position in the industrial competition, we must oppose to this national organization one equally effective and complete. If we continue the fight with our present voluntary system, we shall be defeated. Generations hence we shall be struggling with ignorance, squalor, pauperism, and crime; but with a system of national education made compulsory, and supplemented with art and industrial education, I believe within twenty years England would possess the most intelligent and inventive artizans in the world.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

Her Majesty's Schools Inquiry Commissioners.

Yours, &c.
A. J. Mundella.

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19. From James Young, Esq.

Chemical Works, Bathgate,
July 4, 1867.

Sir,

I had the honour to receive your letter of 20 June requesting me to give you my experience as to whether I agree in substance with Dr. Lyon Playfair's letter to Lord Taunton. I was a juror in the English Exhibition of 1862, but in the French Exhibition I am only an exhibitor; as such I have spent about a month in Paris studying the Exhibition, and

there had the opportunity of meeting many jurors of different nations. I am bound to say that my experience accords with that of Dr. Lyon Playfair. So formidable did the rate of progress of other nations appear to many of us, that several meetings of jurors, exhibitors, and others took place at the Louvre Hotel on the subject. The universal impression at these meetings was that the rate of progress of foreign nations in the larger number of our staple industries was much greater than our own. But it must be stated that a large number of our first-class machine and other manufacturers are not exhibitors in Paris, whereas other nations, I believe, have taken care to bring forward their very best; still, the great progress of other countries is evident. The reason for this increased rate of progress is the excellent system of technical education given to the masters of workshops, sub-managers, foremen, and even workmen.

England for a long time excelled all other countries in the finish of her machines; but now we find that foreign machine makers are rapidly approaching us in finish, and having skilled and intelligent labour cheaper than ourselves are progressing in all the elements of manufacturing.

Permit me to use my own case as an illustration. Originally I was a working man, but have succeeded in increasing the range of manufacturing industry. The foundation of my success consisted in my having been fortunately attached to the laboratory of the Andersonian University in Glasgow, when I learned chemistry under Graham, and natural philosophy and other subjects under the respective professors. This knowledge gave me the power of improving the chemical manufactures into which I afterwards passed as a servant, and ultimately led to my being the founder of a new branch of industry, and owner of the largest chemical manufacturing works of the kingdom. It would be most ungrateful of me if I did not recognize the importance of scientific and technical education in improving and advancing manufactures. Many men without such education have made inventions and improvements, but they have struggled against enormous difficulties, which only a powerful genius could overcome, and they have been sensible of the obstacles to their progress. Stephenson, who so greatly improved locomotives, had to be his own instructor, but he sent his son Robert to Edinburgh University, and the son did works at least as great as the father, and with far less difficulty to himself.

The improvement in locomotion has necessarily created great competition in the industries of the world, and unless we add skilled instruction to manual labour, England cannot expect to maintain her position in the industrial race.

I have, &c.

H. J. Roby, Esq.,
&c. &c.

JAMES YOUNG.

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SCHOOLS INQUIRY COMMISSIONS.

REPORT

TO THE

COMMISSIONERS APPOINTED BY HER MAJESTY TO INQUIRE INTO THE EDUCATION GIVEN IN SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND NOT COMPRISED WITHIN HER MAJESTY'S TWO RECENT COMMISSIONS,

AND TO THE

COMMISSIONERS APPOINTED BY HER MAJESTY TO INQUIRE INTO THE SCHOOLS IN SCOTLAND,

ON THE

COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM

OF THE

UNITED STATES AND OF THE PROVINCES OF UPPER AND LOWER CANADA.

BY

THE REV. JAMES FRASER, M.A.,
ASSISTANT-COMMISSIONER.

"Ne tournons pas nos régards vers l'Amérique pour copier servilement les institutions qu'elle s'est données, mais pour mieux comprendre celles qui nous conviennent; moins pour y puiser des exemples que des enseignements; pour lui emprunter les principes plutôt que les détails de ses lois."—DE TOCQUEVILLE.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.

LONDON:
PRINTED BY GEORGE E. EYRE AND WILLIAM SPOTTISWOODE,
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FOR HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE.

1866.

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REPORT

ON THE

COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM

OF THE

UNITED STATES AND OF THE PROVINCES OF UPPER AND LOWER CANADA.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

On the 4th April 1865 I received your instructions to proceed to the United States of America and to Canada for the purpose of inquiring into, and then reporting to you upon, the system of education which prevails there. Extent and length of the inquiry.

You considered that such inquiry might be completed in six months, and the Report written in two months more. Six months proved ample time for the first purpose; but the composition of my report has fully occupied twice the time that you expected it to do. I sailed from Liverpool on the 22nd April, landing in New York on the 2nd May. I returned from New York on 4th October, and set foot ashore at Liverpool on the 15th. I at once addressed myself to the Report which I now have the honour of submitting to your perusal and consideration.

On arriving in the country I found that neither in the States nor in Canada is the summer half of the year the best period of time for visiting schools. The months of July and August are the ordinary months for what may be called the American "long vacation." The effects of heat on the schools are more serious than the effects of cold. In rural districts particularly there is more frequent demand in summer for juvenile labour; and the evil of what the Americans call "absenteeism," always considerable, exhibits itself in larger proportions. In cities and towns the teachers are a more permanent body; but in the country schools it is not usual to engage the teacher for more than a single session—summer or winter, as the case may be; and more pains are generally taken by the trustees to secure efficient teachers for the winter term, as being both the longest and the best attended, than for the summer one. Evening schools, as with ourselves, are only held in the winter months. Summer an unfavourable season for visiting schools.

Some compensation, however, for this.

It results, therefore, that so far as the actual visitation of schools is concerned, two out of the five months—from the beginning of May to the end of September—which I spent in the country were lost time. The schools were closed and could not be visited. I could only occupy my time profitably, and I think I did occupy it very profitably, by extending the field of my inquiry among persons interested in educational questions, and particularly among those actually engaged in the management and supervision of schools, or by attending meetings of teachers' associations, where I could observe the tone and bearing of 500 or 600 educationists gathered from all parts of a State, and listen to the very interesting discussions on educational matters that ensued. It was thus that I made myself acquainted with the school system of the great cities of Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, and Detroit, and, generally, with the system of the States of Ohio and Illinois, though I had no opportunity of inspecting one of their schools. It was thus that I attended a very instructive meeting of the Ohio teachers at Cincinnati, and another of the Upper Canada teachers at Toronto.* And though in this way I saw fewer *schools*, I certainly saw many more *persons concerned with schools*, and reached a larger range of opinion and sentiment upon the subject; while the schools themselves, when similarly circumstanced, are so uniform in character, and present so few distinctive differences, that to see two or three is almost to see all of the same class, and an extended survey merely multiplies your observations without giving any greater clearness or precision to your ideas.

Subject studied in every class of school.

I was charged in my instructions "to study my subject in "small and in large schools, in the country districts as well as in "the thickly peopled towns," and this I did sufficiently so to arrive at distinct and, I believe, accurate conclusions. When I did visit a school it was for the purpose of thorough inspection. I spent my morning, sometimes my whole day there—a pertinacity which my kind guides at first did not seem to understand;† but

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Characteristics of the teachers' meetings at Cincinnati and Toronto.

* There was a marked difference in the character of these two teachers' associations, both as regards their "personnel" and their discussions. At the Ohio meeting there were present perhaps 500 members, of whom fully half were females. At Toronto there was a mere sprinkling of mistresses—not a dozen out of 150 members present—a difference which was to be expected from the proportion in which the two sexes are employed as teachers in the two countries—in the States there being a decided preference for female teachers, in Canada for male. There was much more movement and vivacity in the discussions at Cincinnati, but there was exhibted as much solid, practical sense at Toronto. There was a peculiar element in the Cincinnati gathering, arising from the presence of the ladies, which, of course, the Toronto assembly lacked altogether. The Cincinnati proceedings and addresses are reported in the "Ohio Educational Monthly," for September 1865, and are well worth reading. I shall have frequent occasion to refer to them.

School visits in America generally too brief and rapid.

† The way in which American schools, and American sights in general, are commonly shown to visitors is too rapid to be entirely satisfactory. As I shall have occasion to remark in its proper place, thorough inspection of schools,

when they did understand that I thought I could gain my object better by passing three or four hours in one school and making myself thoroughly master of the methods pursued, than by being hurried through half-a-dozen schools in the same time, they invariably yielded to my whim, at whatever cost of weariness to themselves, with the best grace imaginable. Indeed, nothing could exceed the readiness with which every facility was afforded me for obtaining the information I desired, or the cordial welcome that awaited me in every school; and my own dulness or negligence alone will be in fault if I shall be thought to have made but a poor use of the opportunities which I enjoyed.*

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such as we are accustomed to in England, is a great desideratum both in the States and in Canada.

I happened to be in the High School of Philadelphia when a deputation of perhaps 25 citizens of St. Louis—who (as is common in America) were on a sort of cruise among the eastern cities to observe their various municipal and social institutions—entered for the purpose of "seeing the school." Their visit was expected, and an address of welcome and two recitations had been prepared in their honour. To these they listened, and by the mouth of one of their number made a brief reply; and after having stayed perhaps 20 minutes, took their departure, "charmed," they said, "with what they had seen," but, beyond having seen the intelligent faces of about 500 boys, and observed the perfect order that was maintained, knowing, I should suppose, nothing more of the actual working of the school than when they came.

Persons to whom I am indebted for information.

* This perhaps will be as good a place as any for mentioning the names of those to whom I am principally indebted for information received. I desire to do so for a double purpose—both to show that I applied to the best sources, and also to express my gratitude for kindness which never seemed to grow weary of my importunity. My chief informants, then, were these:—

In the State of New York:—In New York City, Messrs. Boesé, Daven port, Hastie, Murray, Vance, and Nelson, of the Board of Education; Messrs. Randall, Kiddle, and Calkins, superintendents of schools; Messrs. James F. Gerard, A. R. Wetmore, Charles Brace, and R. M. Hartley, more or less connected with the schools or charitable institutions of the place; Principal Webster and Professors Owen and Docharty of the Free Academy; Professors M'Vickar and Lieber of Columbia College; Messrs. R. B. Minturn, sen. and jun.:—At Albany, Mr. J. V. L. Pruyn, Chancellor, and Dr. Samuel Woolworth, Secretary of the Board of Regents; Mr. J. W. Mason, Principal of the Albany Academy —At West Point, Professors French, Bartlett, Church, and Mahan.

In the State of Connecticut:—At Newhaven, Professors D. C. Gillman, and Noah Porter of Yale University; Mr. Kinne, Principal of the High School; General Russell, proprietor of a large private school; Rev. W. Kingsley and Miss Mary Hillhouse:—At Hartford, Hon. H. Barnard, editor of the American Journal of Education, and perhaps the oldest and most experienced practical educationist in the country; President Kerfoot and Professor Pynchon of Trinity College, Bishop Williams, Mr. Stone, of the Deaf-Mute Asylum, Mr. Capron, Principal of the High School; Rev. W. C. Doane.

In Rhode Island:—At Providence, President Sears and Professor Dunn, of Brown University; Rev. D. Leach, Superintendent of Schools.

In Massachusetts:—At Boston, Hon. Governor Andrew, Hon. Joseph White, Superintendent, and Rev. B. G. Northrop, State Agent of Schools; Hon. J. D. Philbrick, City Superintendent; Bishop and Mrs. Eastburn; Mr. Geo. F. Ticknor; Mr. and Mrs. C. G. Loring; Mr. Samuel Eliot, formerly President of Trinity College, Connecticut; President Hill and Professors Child and Cutler of Harvard University; Mr. C. Norton, of Cambridge; Mr. Gardner, Mr. Sherwin, Miss Caryl and Miss Stickney, Principals of High Schools:—At Lowell, Rev. T. Edson:—At Salem Training School, Principal Crosbie and

Report divided into two parts.

It will be convenient to break up my Report into two grand divisions, and to devote the first part to an explanation and review of the school system of the United States; the second part to the system, not altogether dissimilar, but considerably modified in several important details, which has been adopted in the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada.*

Part I.—The School System of the United States.

The American common school the product of free soil.

The Common School system, which occupies so proud a position among American institutions is almost exclusively a product of free soil. Into the Southern States, usually so called, it had scarcely penetrated before the civil war, with the exception, as I was informed, of a tolerably complete organization for the city of Charleston, S.C., and another for the State of Louisiana.† In the

Miss Smith:—At Westfield Normal School, Principal Dickenson and Miss Mitchell:—At Springfield, Mr. Parish, Principal of High School.

In Ohio:—At Cincinnati, Hon. E. E. White, State Commissioner of Schools; Mr. Rufus King, formerly President of Board of Education; Mr. Rickoff, Ex-superintendent; Mr. Harvey, President of Teachers' Association Professor Andrews, of Athens University; Mr. Hough, a publisher's agent.

In Illinois:—At Chicago, Bishop Duggan (R.C.), Mr. W. Wells, Ex-superintendent, and Mr. Pickard, Superintendent of City Schools; Mr. Howland, Principal of High School.

At Philadelphia, Mr. E. Shippen, President of Board of Controllers; Mr. Macguire, Principal of Boys' High School; Mr. Dallas, a school director.

In Canada:—At Toronto, Dr. Egerton Ryerson, Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada; Mr. Hodgins of the Education Department; Rev. James Porter, Superintendent, and Mr. Barber, Ex-superintendent of Schools; Dr. MacCaul, President of Toronto University; Professor Daniel Wilson; Provost Whitaker, and Professor Ambery of Trinity College; Mr. Cockburn, of Upper Canada College; Mr. Robertson, Principal of Normal School; Mr. Angus Dallas, Mr. R. Brookes, residents in the city and interested in educational questions:—At Hamilton, Dr. W. Ormiston, late Inspector of Grammar Schools, and Principal MacCallum of the Central School:—At Ottawa, Mr. Cosens, Superintendent of Schools; Mr. Thorburn, Master of the Grammar School; Rev. Mr. Wardrop:—At Montreal, Hon. P. J. Chauveau, Superintendent of Education for Lower Canada:—At Quebec, Mr. Meredith, Assistant Secretary of Upper Canada; Mr. C. Dunkin, M.P. for Broome; M. Ignace Legaré of Laval University. Were I to add the names of the teachers of the different Grammar and Primary Schools which I visited, I should swell my list beyond all reasonable limits. To all those gentlemen and ladies I am deeply indebted: to some of them, as *ex. gr.*, to Messrs. Barnard, Philbrick, Northrop, Gillman, Porter, Boesé, Ryerson, Hodgins, and Chauveau, my debt is heavier than I am ever likely to be able to repay. If this Report ever falls under their eye, they will at least see that I have not forgotten what I owe them.

* I may say here once for all that, as I shall need a discriminating epithet, I shall venture to use the adjective "American," as De Tocqueville has used it, exclusively of the United States. The adjective "Canadian" admits of no ambiguity.

Governor Hammond's estimate of common schools.

† "Just 20 years ago, Governor Hammond, of South Carolina, said in his Message, 'The free school system has failed. Its failure is owing to the fact 'that it does not suit our people, our Government, our *institutions*. The '*paupers*, for whose children it is intended, need them at home to work.'" Quoted by Rev. B. G. Northrop, in a *Lecture before the American Institute of Instruction*, 1864. Perhaps the foundation, slender enough, for Governor Hammond's opinion was to be found in the state of things prevailing in Massachusetts about 30 years ago, described by Mr. Boutwell. (*See below* p. 21.)

border States, as Kentucky and Missouri, the system existed, but in very dwarfed dimensions. In the new State of Western Virginia it was being organized during the period of my visit. But over the Northern States, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the Ohio to the St. Lawrence, it has covered the land with a vast network of schools. The States which I actually visited, for the purpose of acquainting myself with its phenomena, were New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Ohio and Illinois, to which I may add the cities of Detroit in Michigan, and St. Louis in Missouri. I considered this field of observation sufficiently large, and from it I have gathered the materials of this Report.

States actually visited.

It had been apprehended by some that the moment when the country was convulsed by the tremendous struggle of its civil war was an unfavourable opportunity for examining calmly the operation of the American system, and the condition of American schools; and I was even recommended to commence my investigations in Canada, in the hope that by the end of the summer the agitation which was supposed to prevail might in some degree have subsided. I was a little fearful myself, when the pilot who took our ship in charge off Sandy Hook brought to us the startling and unexpected tidings of the assassination of the President a fortnight before, that a new element of disturbance might have been introduced which would materially interfere with my inquiry. But all such apprehensions proved groundless. The ordinary march of life was interrupted in the Northern States by the loss of their chief magistrate hardly for an hour. The war—except in a border city like St. Louis, or in parts of Pennsylvania, as in the neighbourhood of Gettysburg, where its tide swept almost or quite up to men's very doors—exercised no detrimental influence upon the prosperity of the schools. It is true that the spirit of patriotism drew away from their peaceful occupation many teachers—no fewer than 3,000, it is asserted,* in the single State of Pennsylvania,—to risk their lives for the maintenance of the unbroken nationality of their country; but the effect of this was, not to close the schools, but merely to transfer them to the management of women instead of men. While, on the other hand, never before were realized so strongly the national blessings of education, and the necessity of democratic institutions resting for a foundation, upon the intelligence and public spirit of the people. Never before, therefore, were more liberal appropriations voted by the townships for the support of schools; never before were private benefactions more frequent or munificent; never before was there displayed a more universal determination to uphold in all its integrity, and, if

The schools undisturbed by the war.

National feelings with regard to education.

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* "We find the whole number that have entered the army to be more than "3,000, and the number who have volunteered is to the number drafted as "1,051 is to 124," and this out of a total number of less than 8,000 male teachers.—*Pennsylvania School Report*, 1864, p. 43.

School teachers in the army.

possible, to carry onward to a still higher degree of efficiency, the education of the people.*

Origin of Common Schools.

To the far seeing wisdom of the founders of the colony of Massachusetts Bay, the United States of America owe the grand idea of free common school education. In 1642, only 22 years after the landing of the pilgrim fathers from the *Mayflower*,—"the general court of the colony by a public act enjoined upon the municipal authorities the duty of seeing that every child within their respective jurisdictions should be educated."† By the terms of the Act, the "selectmen" of every township‡ were required to "have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbours, and to see that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families as not to endeavour to teach, by themselves or others, their children and apprentices so much learning as may

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Instances of benefactions to education.

* Evidences of this abound everywhere. I will note a few which came under my own observation.

In the State of Massachusetts, the appropriations for 1864 were more than $100,000 in excess of those for 1863; and those for 1865 were expected to be more than another $100,000 in excess of those for 1864; and the year 1864 was chosen by the Secretary of the Board of Education as the time for recommending that the minimum sum required to be raised by local taxation to meet the State grant should be doubled.

In 1864, Yale University received in benefactions upwards of $400,000, and the resources of Cambridge were, I believe, enriched by a nearly equal amount. In Cincinnati, a wealthy citizen had just bequeathed $400,000 for the foundation of two colleges, one for male, the other for female students. Mr. Vassar, a brewer of Poughkeepsie, N.Y., in the same year handed over to trustees $400,000, for the foundation of "an institution which should accomplish for young women what colleges accomplish for young men," which has just been organized, and was to start on its career, in a noble building "set on a hill," and conspicuous from all the country round, last September. In 1865, Mr. Cornell, who began life as a mechanic, and by industry and skill has accumulated a large fortune, set apart the splendid donation of $500,000, under trust, to found a university which is to bear his name, and for which a site has been chosen at Ithaca, N.Y.

It is not the multiplication of colleges and universities—of which there are far too many in the States already—that I regard as a good thing; but these instances of individual munificence, so common in America, so rare among ourselves, are surely to be reckoned among the "signs," and not unhealthy signs, "of the time." Not without good grounds say the School Committee of Boston in their report for 1864: "In no year within the recollection of the "present generation have so many opposing elements, military, political, "financial, foreign, and domestic, seemed to threaten the stability of our most "cherished institutions; in no year has the enlightened system of free schools "throughout this commonwealth and throughout New England been more "liberally, more resolutely upheld, with the abatement of not one jot or tittle "of faith, by a people in the very throes of a rebellion, the most gigantic in "its proportions, the most desperate in its persistency, that the world has yet "seen."—*Report* for 1864, p. 6.

† *Horace Mann's 10th Report*, 1849, p. 8.

"Towns" and "townships."

‡ These municipalities are called "towns" in the New England States, but "townships" in the West. I shall use the latter word as less likely to be misunderstood by an English reader. The "selectmen" are the municipal corporation of the township; three in the smaller, nine in the larger townships.—(*De Tocqueville*, vol. i. p. 73. note.) In New England townships vary indefinitely in size. In the Western States they are laid out with a uniform area—six miles square—and divided into 36 sections of a mile square each.

enable them perfectly to read the English tongue, and obtain a knowledge of the capital laws, upon penalty of twenty shillings for each neglect therein."

Act of 1647 the foundation of present system.

This law of 1642 was an attempt to secure the blessing of universal education; but it did not make education free, nor impose any penalty upon municipal corporations for neglecting to maintain a school. In 1647, therefore, a further legislative step in the same direction was taken, and the foundations of the present system—or, as Mr. Horace Mann thinks, of something even broader and more liberal than the present system—of free schools were laid. By this law, every township containing 50 householders was required to appoint a teacher, "to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write and read," and every township containing 100 families or householders was required to "set up a grammar school," whose master should be "able to instruct youth so far as they may be fitted for the University." The penalty for non-compliance with the above requirements was 5*l.* per annum. In 1671, the penalty was increased to 10*l.*; in 1682 to 20*l.*; in 1718 to 30*l.* for every township containing 150 families, and to 40*l.* for every town containing 200 families; and so on, *pro ratâ*, for townships containing 250 or 300 families. The penalty was increased from time to time, to correspond with the increasing wealth of the township. All forfeitures were appropriated to the maintenance of public schools.*

Its liberality of view.

The greater breadth of conception characterizing these old New Englanders as compared with their descendants lies, in the opinion of Mr. Mann, in the requirement about Grammar Schools. In the language of the 17th century a "grammar school" was a school in which the ancient languages were taught, and youth could be "fitted for the University." In the existing Massachusetts scheme the "grammar school" is the grade that lies between the "primary" (or infant) and the "high" school, and is one in which dead languages are not taught at all. Under the present law a township must contain 500 families before it can be required to maintain a school in which Latin is taught—called a high school of the second grade, and 4,000 inhabitants before it can be required to provide teachers qualified to give instructions in the Greek language—a high school of the first grade. There are at this date 334 townships in Massachusetts, but only 99 high schools of the first grade.† Had the law requiring every township of a 100 families to keep such a school been then in force, Mr. Mann says that so long ago as in 1849 there would not have been more than twelve townships in the Commonwealth exempt from the obligation. In 1647 the entire population of Massachusetts

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* *Horace Mann's 10th Report*, 1849, p. 10.

Slight decline of high schools.

† There seems to be some falling off in this grade of school. The number in the text is that given in the *28th Report*, 1865, p. 59; whereas in the *24th Report*, 1861, p. 93, Mr. Boutwell, the then Secretary of the Board of Education, states that "there are now known to be 102 high schools in which the "Greek and Latin languages are taught."

Bay is computed to have not exceeded 21,000 souls; in 1860 it was returned at 1,231,066.

System rests on two fundamental principles.

In other senses, however, of the word liberality, the American common school of the 19th century does not stand at a disadvantage, when compared with the common school of the 17th century. It is based, as upon the fundamental principle enounced by Washington, that the "virtue and intelligence" of the people are the two indispensable securities of republican institutions, so upon the two great republican doctrines of perfect social equality and absolute religious freedom.* In the Constitution of the State of Rhode Island it is laid down† that "the diffusion of knowledge "as well as of virtue among the people being essential to the "preservation of their rights and liberties, it shall be the duty of "the General Assembly to promote public schools, and to adopt all "means which they may deem necessary and proper to secure to "the people the advantages and opportunities of education." By the school laws of Massachusetts,‡ "all children within the "Commonwealth may attend the public school in the place in which "they have their legal residence," and "no person shall be excluded "from a public school on account of the race, colour,§ or religious "opinions of the applicant or scholar." The whole idea, indeed, of the aims and objects of education, as contemplated by the American system, cannot be better expressed than it has been by Mr. Horace Mann. "Under our republican government," says he, "it seems clear that the minimum of education can never be less "than such as is sufficient to qualify each citizen for the civil and "social duties he will have to discharge: such an education as "teaches the individual the great laws of bodily health, as "qualifies for the fulfilment of parental duties; as is indispensable "for the civil functions of a witness or a juror; as is necessary for "the voter in municipal and in national affairs; and, finally, as is "required for the faithful and conscientious discharge of all "those duties which devolve upon the inheritor of a portion of "the sovereignty of this great Republic."‖ Upon these ideas the whole structure is built. Knowing the aims and avowed principles of the system, we can proceed to examine the machinery by which it is attempted to realize and embody them.

Mr. Horace Mann's description of the objects of American education.

Its relation to the civil polity.

This machinery is altogether framed in direct reference to the civil polity and municipal institutions. Local self-government is the underlying principle of democratic institutions; local self-

American civilization the product of the spirit of liberty and of religion.

* "J'en ai déjà assez dit pour mettre en son vrai jour le caractère de la civilisation Anglo-Américaine. Elle est le produit,—et ce point de départ doit sans cesse être présent à la pensée,—de deux éléments parfaitement distincts, qui ailleurs se sont fait souvent la guerre, mais qu'on est parvenu, en Amérique à incorporer en quelque sorte l'un dans l'autre, et à combiner merveilleusement—je veux parler de l'esprit de religion, et de l'esprit de liberté" (*De Tocqueville*, vol. i. p. 52).

† *See Acts relating to the Public Schools of Rhode Island*, 1857, p. 3.

‡ Law of 1849, ch. 117, s. 4; Law of 1845, ch. 256, s. 1. See 24*th Report*, pp. 132–4.

§ In many places provision is made for separate coloured schools; *ex. gr.* in New York, New Haven, Providence.

‖ *Horace Mann's* 10*th Report*, 1849, p. 17.

government is the main-spring of the American school system. In the New England States, the township is the great municipal unit; in the New England States, therefore, the township organization forms the basis of the school system. In New York, Pennsylvania and the Western States generally, municipal powers are more concentrated in the *county*,* and there is a corresponding change in the constitution of the schools. But in both cases, the governing maxim is the same; it is what De Tocqueville says, flows necessarily from a recognition of the doctrine of the sovereignty of the people, viz., that the individual—and the township and county are individuals in relation to the Central Government—is the best and only judge of his own interests, and that society has no right to direct his actions unless his conduct becomes mischievous to her, or she has need to summon him to her aid.†

De Tocqueville on the township and the county.

* "Les États qui composent l'Union Américaine présentent tous, quant à l'aspect extérieur de leurs institutions, le même spectacle. La vie politique ou administrative s'y trouve concentrée dans trois foyers d'action qu'on pourrait comparer aux divers centres nerveux qui font mouvoir le corps humain. Au premier degré se trouve la commune, plus haut le comté, enfin l'État...Les communes ne sont en général soumises à l'État que quand il s'agit d'un intérêt que j'appellerai *social*, c'est à dire, qu'elles partagent avec d'autres. Pour tout ce qui n'a rapport qu'à elles seules, les communes sont restées des corps indépendants; et parmi les habitants de la Nouvelle-Angleterre, il ne s'en rencontre aucun, je pense, qui reconnaisse au gouvernement de l'État le droit d'intervenir dans la direction des intérêts purement communaux.....À mesure qu'on descend vers le midi, on s'aperçoit que la vie communale devient moins active; la commune a moins de magistrats, de droits et de devoirs; la population n'y exerce pas une influence si directe sur les affaires; les assemblées communales sont moins frequentes, et s'étendent à moins d'objets. Le pouvoir du magistrat élu est donc comparativement plus grand, et celui de l'electeur plus petit; l'esprit communal y est moins éveillé et moins puissant. À mesure donc qu'on s'éloigne de la Nouvelle-Angleterre, la vie communale passe en quelque sort au comté. Le comté devient le grand centre administratif, et forme le pouvoir intermédiare entre le gouvernement et les simples citoyens...Dans le grand État de New York, dans l'État d'Ohio, et dans la Pensylvanie, les habitants de chaque comté élisent un certain nombre de députés; la réunion de ces députés forme une assemblée représentative du comté. L'assemblée du comté possède, dans de certaines limites, le droit d'imposer les habitants; elle constitue, sous ce rapport, une véritable législature;...c'est elle en même temps qui administre le comté, dirige en plusieurs cas l'administration des communes, et resserre leurs pouvoirs dans des limites beaucoup plus étroites qu'au Massachusetts...La commune et le comté ne sont pas constitués partout de la même manière, mais on peut dire que l'organisation de la commune et du comté, aux États-Unis, repose partout sur cette même idée; que chacun est le meilleur juge de ce qui n'a rapport qu'à lui-même, et le plus en état de pourvoir à ses besoins particuliers. La commune et le comté sont donc chargés de veiller à leurs intérêts spéciaux. L'État gouverne et n'administre pas. On rencontre des exceptions à ce principe, mais non un principe contraire." *De Tocqueville*, i. pp. 70, 77, 96–98. We shall notice continual applications of these principles as we proceed with our development of the constitution of American schools.

American theory of the "sovereignty of the people."

† "Le principe de la souveraineté du peuple plane sur tout le système politique des Anglo-Americains Chaque individu forme une portion égale du souverain, et participe également au gouvernement de l'Etat. De là cette maxime, que l'individu est le meilleur comme le seul juge de son intérêt particulier, et que la société n'a le droit de diriger ses actions que quand elle se sent lésée par son fait, ou lorsqu'elle a besoin de réclamer son concours. La commune, prise en masse et par rapport au gouvernement central, n'est qu'un individu comme un autre, auquel s'applique la théorie que je viens d'indiquer" (*Ibid*, i. 76).

The township the basis of the system of Common Schools.

On the township then—as the political unit—in Massachusetts and the New England States, absolutely, and in the other States which have adopted the Common School system not quite absolutely, but still principally,* lies the obligation to see that the means of education are brought within the reach of every American child.

Area and population of townships.

Both the area and the population of a township vary indefinitely in the eastern States. In the new States of the west, the *area* of all townships is the same—36 square miles—unless they lie on the borders of the State, in which case they may happen to be curtailed. In Massachusetts there are 334 townships to an area variously estimated at from 7,250 to 8,200 square miles, differing in superficial extent from Middleborough, which contains—or did contain in 1849—168¾ square miles, to Newbury-port, which contains only one. But both in east and west, whether the area of the township is uniform or variable, the population fluctuates between the widest limits. The city of Boston, with its 170,000 or 180,000 inhabitants, forms but one township; the township of Hull is mentioned by Mr. Mann as having a population in 1845 of 231 only.†

Plan of this Report.

Such, allowing for these unessential differences, is the territorial organization of the State, upon which the system of common schools is based, and to which the provisions of the school law are applied. I propose—

(*a.*) To give a brief abstract of the laws of the State of Massachusetts upon this subject;

(*b.*) To collate these with the laws of some other leading States, noting the chief features of difference;

(*c.*) Having seen the system thus exposed in theory, to follow it out into practice, and observe how it is found to work; and, lastly,

(*d.*) Briefly to criticize its more salient merits and defects chiefly in the points in which it contrasts most markedly with our own.

If I can develop these four divisions of my programme intelligibly, I conceive I shall have accomplished what is expected from me. Under the two first heads my statements, being chiefly quotations from legal documents, will necessarily be somewhat dry;

Differences in New York, Ohio, and Illinois.

* In the State of New York very large powers are vested in the State Superintendent. School districts are formed not, as in Massachusetts, by the township itself, but by the School Commissioner of the "assembly district," within which both the township and the school district lie. The State school moneys are distributed by *counties*. In Ohio and Illinois, *county* officers are largely concerned in the administration of the school funds; and the Board of Supervision of the county occupy much the same relation to the school that in Massachusetts do the "selectmen" of the township; and the School Commissioner of the county has considerable jurisdiction over the schools themselves. In all these three States teachers are certificated by *county* officers or *county* boards. The Massachusetts Board of Education, which represents the Central Government, on the other hand, speaks of itself as "having no power whatever over "the schools of the State," though it "still regards their progress with "watchful interest" (24*th Report*, 1861, p. 5).

† 10*th Report*, 1849, p. 34.

but I trust the reader's interest in the subject will increase as he goes on. To commence with the actual requirements of the law. It is prescribed then—

I. "That in every township there shall be kept* for at least six months in each year at the expense of the township by Massachusetts school law.

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* The law is imperative, but the penalty attached to failure to comply with it might be difficult of infliction. Mr. Mann says that a township is indictable and punishable if it does not maintain one or more schools, and he refers in proof of this assertion to *Revised Statutes*, ch. 23, s. 60.

"A township which refuses or neglects to raise money for the support of schools as required by this chapter shall forfeit a sum equal to twice the highest sum ever before voted for the support of schools therein." Penalties on townships.

But how would this apply to the case of a township freshly organized, which has never yet voted any school moneys, and should persistently refuse to vote any?

"A township which refuses or neglects to choose a School Committee to superintend said schools, or to choose prudential committees in the several districts when it is the duty of the township to choose such prudential committees, shall forfeit a sum not less than $500 nor more than $1,000, to be paid into the treasury of the county, three-fourths of which shall be paid to the "select-men" of the township from which it is recovered, who shall appropriate the same to the support of the schools of the township in the same manner as if it had been regularly raised by the township for the purpose."

This seems stringent enough; but there are cunning people in Upper Canada, if not in Massachusetts, who could contrive an evasion. An Upper Canadian Superintendent calls the attention of the Chief Superintendent to "a real "grievance which sometimes exists, in parties being struck from a school "section, avoiding thereby the payment of taxes to a neighbouring school, on "the alleged ground, most probably, of distance to travel; *carrying on from "year to year the formality of electing trustees, but resting there without taking "any subsequent steps for having a school established*" (*Upper Canada Report for* 1863, p. 136).

In fact, though there is sufficient public spirit in every township in Massachusetts both to establish schools and to vote money for their support, yet in many places the provisions of the law are not observed in several very important particulars. Thus the law says the school must "be kept for at least "six months." But in 1864 it appears there were 87 townships—more than a fourth of the whole—which failed in this respect. "Twenty-two lack only three "days of the required time; in 46 others the schools are kept five months or "more; while in 19 townships the schools are less than five, and in some "instances less than four months in length" (*28th Report*, 1865, p. 77). Apparently evaded.

Again, though the Statute to be presently quoted is equally explicit and equally peremptory about High Schools, it appears that in 1864 there were eight townships out of 60 with a population of more than 4,000 which did not maintain a high school of the first class; and 32 townships out of 68 containing 500 families but less than 4000 inhabitants which did not maintain a high school of the second class. (*Ibid.* p. 93).

Once more; the law requires high schools to be kept open 10 months, exclusive of vacations. Of the 118 high schools kept in Massachusetts in 1864 only 88 fulfilled this requirement; 14 were kept open only for eight months; 16 for less than eight months (*Ibid.*)

In the case of a township divided into districts, if one of the districts refuses to vote money to maintain a school or erect a school-house, the "select-men" of the township, upon application in writing of five inhabitants of the district, and with the consent of the majority of the voters of the township, in the first case, and the school committee of the township *proprio motu*, in the second case, may authorize the assessment and collection of the money required for such purposes in the district, and carry the said purposes into effect. But there appear to be no corresponding powers given to the authorities of either the County or the State to compel the township itself to move. Happily the current of public opinion sets so strongly in favour of the schools that such powers are not required.

Classes of Schools.

Common Schools.

a teacher or teachers* of competent ability and good morals, a sufficient number of schools for the instruction of all the children who may legally attend public school therein, in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, the history of the United States, and good behaviour. Algebra, vocal music, drawing, physiology, and hygiene shall be taught by lectures or otherwise in all the public schools in which the Committee deem it expedient.‡

Number of scholars to a teacher.

* It is generally agreed in America that 50 scholars is the maximum number that can safely be committed to one teacher, though in carefully graded schools teachers are frequently found in charge of more. Hence the law provides, that "In every public school, having an average of 50 scholars, the school district "or township to which such school belongs shall employ one or more female "assistants, unless such district or township, at a meeting called for the pur- "pose, votes to dispense with such assistant." (*Revised Statutes*, ch. 38, s. 9.)

Legal right of children to attend school.

† "All children within the commonwealth, may—*i.e.* have a legal right to— "attend the public school in the place in which they have their legal residence, "subject to the regulations prescribed by law:" and no child can "be excluded "from a public school on account of race, colour, or religious opinions." (*R.S.* ch. 41, s. 3 and 9.) But children are not allowed to attend school who "have "not been duly vaccinated" (s. 8); and it has been held in the Courts that "the School Commiteee have power, in order to maintain the purity and dis- "cipline of the public schools, to exclude therefrom a child whom they deem to be "of a licentious and immoral character, although such character is not manifested "by acts of licentiousness and immorality within the school" (8 *Cushing*, 160). "The reasons," says Mr. Secretary Boutwell, "for which a child may be "excluded absolutely from school neither are, nor can be, expressed in the law. "Committees are responsible for the exercise of a sound discretion" (*24th Report*, p. 135). The Committee is bound by law to state in writing, on application of the parent or guardian of a child, "the grounds and reason of his "exclusion" (*R. S.* ch. 41, s. 10). And a "child unlawfully excluded may "recover damages therefor in an action of tort" (*Ibid.* s. 11). Children living remote from any public school in their own township may be allowed to attend the public schools in an adjoining township; and the School Committee of the township in which such children reside shall pay out of the appropriation of money raised in the said township for the support of schools such sum as may be agreed upon (*R.S.* ch. 41, s. 5).

The school age.

The school age in Massachusetts is between five and fifteen, and one might have supposed that these rights were limited to that period; but Mr. Boutwell says no; "for it cannot be doubted that youth under 21 years of age are "entitled to the benefits of the public schools" (*24th Report*, p. 132). I do not know whether this is a private opinion, or a case that has been actually decided in the Courts. In some of the States, *ex. gr.* New York, the school age is from 5 to 21.

Progressive legislation.

‡ The law of 1826 provided for instruction in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, and good behaviour. In 1857 the history of the United States was added to the list. By the law of 1850, physiology and hygiene were to be taught in the schools whenever the Committee should so require. In 1857 algebra was introduced into the scheme; and in 1859 vocal music and drawing: these three last studies, like physiology and hygiene, being left to the discretion of the Committee. A still more recent addition, is agriculture.

Previously to 1859 townships were only required to maintain *one* school for six months, or two or more schools for terms that should be together equivalent to six months. Now each school that is maintained at all is required to be kept open for this period. "The execution of this law," wrote Mr. Boutwell in 1861," will be attended with several important results. Townships will "gradually reduce the number of schools till they correspond to the actual "necessities of the public, while the inhabitants of sparsely peopled sections "will enjoy equal educational advantages with those of villages and populous

II. "Every township may,* and every township containing 500 families or householders shall, besides the schools prescribed in the preceding section, maintain a school to be kept by a master of competent ability and good morals, who in addition to the branches of learning before mentioned, shall give instruction in general history, book-keeping, surveying, geometry, natural philosophy, chemistry, botany, the civil polity of this Commonwealth, and of the United States, and the Latin language. Such school shall be kept for the benefit of all the inhabitants of the township 10 months at least, exclusive of vacations in each year, and at such convenient place, or alternately at such places in the township as the legal voters at their annual meeting determine. And in every township containing 4,000 inhabitants the teacher or teachers of the schools required by this section shall, in addition to the branches of instruction before required, be competent to give instruction in the Greek and French languages, astronomy, geology, rhetoric, logic, intellectual and moral science, and political economy. Two adjacent townships having each less than 500 families or householders, may form one high school district for establishing such a school as is contemplated in the preceding section, when a majority of the legal voters of each township, in meetings called for that purpose, so determine."†

High schools (*a*) of the second class;

(*b*) of the first class.

"neighbourhoods. The arbitrary and unjust rules by which money raised for "the support of schools is sometimes distributed among the districts will dis- "appear, and the opportunities given to the children in a township will answer "more nearly to the principles of justice and equality" (*24th Report*, p. 90.) We have seen, however, that this provision of the law is only obeyed imperfectly. (*See above*, p. 17, note.)

High schools maintained when not required.

* It appears that in 1864 there were 20 townships not required by their population to have a high school, which voluntarily maintained one. (*28th Report, p.* 93.) *Per contra*, there were 40 "delinquent" townships. (*Ibid.*)

Laws about Grammar Schools.

† *R. S.* ch. 38, s. 2 and 3. By the law of 1647 every township containing 100 families was required to "set up a grammar school," the master whereof should "be able to instruct youth so far as they may be fitted for "the University," under a penalty of 5*l.*, which in subsequent years was considerably increased (*See above*, p. 13). By Statute of 1789 the duty of maintaining a grammar school, in which the Latin and Greek languages were to be taught, was limited to towns containing 200 families. The penalty for neglect was 30*l.* The present requirements were first made by the Revised Statutes of 1826. The study of French was not required till 1857.

First case of a girls' "high school."

The lawfulness of establishing and maintaining out of taxation a *girls'* high school was decided in the case of the township of Newbury-port (10 *Metcalfe's Reports*, p. 508). In the same judgment it was held by the Court, that "without "regard to population the general powers of townships were sufficient to justify "appropriations for the support of townships schools of every grade." The present Secretary of the Board of Education, the Hon. Joseph White, thinks "the time has come when a sound policy demands such an amendment of the "existing law as shall require all towns having 2,000 inhabitants to maintain a "high school of the second grade." (*28th Report*, p. 93.)

What is meant by a school month.

As the law prescribes the length of time during which schools must be kept open, it may be as well to say here once for all that, in computations of

Adult schools.

III. "Any township may establish and maintain, in addition to the schools required by law to be maintained therein, schools for the education of persons over 15 years of age; may determine the term or terms of time in each year, and the hours of the day or evening during which the said school shall be kept, and appropriate such sums of money as may be necessary for the support thereof."*

Support of Schools.

B. In every State of the Union in which the system of common schools prevails, there exists a State School Fund, the sources and amount of which, in a sufficient number of cases to give a general idea of its character, shall be a matter of subsequent detail. In

The State School Fund.

Massachusetts it is intended that this fund shall ultimately amount to the capital sum of $2,000,000. On the 1st January, 1864, it amounted to $1,181,627, and produced an income of $111,124, or nearly 10 per cent. on the principal. One half of the annual income is divided in the month of July in each year by the treasurer and secretary of the State among the townships, in proportion to the number of children in each between the ages of 5 and 15 years, on condition

On what conditions distributed.

First, that the proper annual returns from each school have been made to the Secretary of the Board of Education; and

Secondly, that the township has raised by local taxation for the support of schools during the last school year, a sum of not less than a dollar and a half for each person between the ages of 5 and 15 years belonging to the township.†

Its trifling amount per child.

In 1864 the sum applicable to the different townships from this source was $55,562, yielding for each person in the State between the ages of 5 and 15 the sum of 23.4 cents, or less than a quarter of a dollar. As the average sum raised by local taxes in the same year amounted to nearly six and a half dollars a child, it will be seen at once that in the merely financial point of view

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school time a month is taken as equal to four weeks of five days each, or 20 days. Hence the minimum time required for a "public school" is 120 days; for a "high school" 200 days.

It will be noticed that the received nomenclature "primary," "intermediate," "grammar," and "high" schools, is not to be found in the Statutes, which discriminate the class of schools only by the subjects taught in each.

Evening schools.

* I am not aware that this permission has been used except for the support of evening schools. In the reports of School Committees for 1864, evening schools are spoken of as doing good service in Lawrence, Fall River, and New Bedford: in the last-named city they have been at work for 16 years. At Boston, as yet, there has been no public system of evening schools, but a movement is being now made in that direction. In New York city, Cincinnati, Brooklyn N.Y., St. Louis, San Francisco, Philadelphia, Providence, and elsewhere, there have been large and successful evening schools going on throughout the winter, on which considerable sums of public money have been expended. Owing to the season of my visit, I could not see any of these at work; but I will append some statistics of them in another place.

Appropriation how to be expended.

† This is the amount to be expended only on wages and board of teachers, fuel for the schools, and care of fires and school-rooms. The cost of erection, enlargement or repair of buildings, remuneration of committee-men, &c., may not be reckoned under this head.

the subsidy of the State is little worth.* It is its moral influence that gives to it its value. Mr. Boutwell shall describe its effects.

Its indirect influences.

" The establishment of the School Fund was the most important educational measure ever adopted by the Government of this Commonwealth. In 1832, when an effort was made to obtain trustworthy returns from the different townships, it appeared that the 99 townships which responded were expending only $1.98 each for the education of their children. In 1834, as far as could be ascertained, the sum of $310,000 was raised for the support of public schools, and the sum of $276,000 was paid for tuition in private schools.† The faith of the people in a system of public schools was seriously undermined. The public schools were fast becoming pauper establishments, into which only the poor and neglected went; they were abandoned by large portions of those who could command the means of educating their children elsewhere; and the danger was imminent that the duty of providing at the public expense for the education of the whole people would be neglected. The progress that has been made since 1834 is unquestionably due to the establishment of the school fund,‡ and to the institution of those measures which are dependent upon the

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Boston school taxes.

* In the city of Boston the amount raised by local taxation in the year 1864 for the support of schools was $379,815, exclusive of any sums expended on the erection of buildings. The city's share of the State School Fund in the same year was only $7393 (*28th Report, Appendix*, pp. xliii. and iii).

Relative amount of money raised for public and private schools.

† In 1864 the relative figures were:

Amount raised by taxes for public schools - - - -	$1,536,314
Paid for tuition in incorporated academies, of which there were 59 - - - - - - - - - - -	76,593
Paid for tuition in private schools and academies, of which there were 611 - - - - - - - -	317,447

It is curious that though the number of private schools as compared with the previous year was diminished by three, yet the number of scholars in average attendance at them increased by 551, and the amount paid for tuition by $40,102. The School Committees of Greenfield and of Lanesborough call attention in their Reports to the fact that " there is a growing disposition " among a large class of people to remove their children altogether from the " public schools," and that " many of the best scholars are annually taken out " of the public and sent to the private schools, especially those who are pre- " paring to become teachers." (*28th Report*, pp. 59, 149, 157.)

‡ The Act establishing the fund passed in 1834, and its existence dates from 1st. January 1835.

Connecticut State School Fund.

Connecticut was a long time in advance of Massachusetts in the article of a State School Fund. It was constituted in 1796, and the first dividend made in 1797. In 1863 the dividend was $132,589, or $1.20 *per capita*,—a much larger sum, both absolutely and relatively, than that divided in Massachusetts: but in Connecticut there is no provision made for any increase of the capital of the fund.

Its advantages questionable.

Opinions are very much divided in Connecticut as to whether the operation of the fund is beneficial or not to the cause of education. By some it is thought to stimulate, by others to crush local energy. From things I heard, I should judge that where townships are illiberally disposed, it has the latter effect. Indeed so much is admitted by the Superintendent in his *Report for* 1864 p. 40. " The value of the School Fund to the schools of the State cannot be estimated " by figures; and yet it is undoubtedly true that there have been instances, " where the income from the public funds has been the only means for the " support of Common Schools, that much less interest has been manifested by " the people than in places where the schools were supported in part by taxes.

existence of the school fund. The fund was not established for the special benefit of the townships as such, but for the promotion of the public good in a wider sense. The State had interests of its own and a policy of its own, not inconsistent with the interests and policy of the townships, but yet creating an exigency which justified the inauguration of a system under the control of the state without the intervention of the municipalities. The existence of the school fund is the basis of this policy. With the fund it is possible to obtain accurate and complete returns from nearly every township in the State: without it, all legislation must prove ineffectual. By the aid of the fund all material facts are annually made known to the State; without it each township is kept ignorant of what its neighbours are doing. With the fund we have a system; without it all is disjointed and disconnected. It was not the purpose of the Legislature to assume in any sense or to any extent the support of the schools, but rather to give them aid and encouragement. This is done by the distribution of one-half of the annual income, on certain conditions, among the townships. A chief means by which schools were to be encouraged was the education of teachers. This result has been secured by the Normal Schools.* Thus have the objects contemplated by the creation of the fund been realized. It was intended to be a permanent fund, the principal of which cannot "be diminished;" and so it should ever remain, increasing with the population of the Commonwealth, but never so perverted as to allow the system under which we have prospered to be in any degree impaired."†

Local taxation.

It will have been seen, however, that whatever be the stimulus to education supplied by the State School Fund, the main cost of the schools has to be provided from other sources. It is provided exclusively by local taxation. "Rate-bills," as they are called in America,—"school fees," as we call them in England,—do not appear to be permissible under the law of Massachusetts.‡ The several

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"Many of the friends of education believe it would be better and more equitable "to have the distribution made according to actual attendance." As it is, the distribution is *per capita*, according to the number of persons in each township between the ages of 4 and 16. The clergyman of a country parish near Newhaven told me that "many of his people were excellent financiers. They "calculated to a nicety how long the appropriation from the School Fund would "maintain the school, and then withdrew their children, refusing at the same "time to vote a tax for the longer continuance of the school; so that those "who wished the school kept open for a longer period had to submit to a "'rate-bill' for the payment of the teacher."

Other moiety of School Fund how used.

* The other moiety of the School Fund is applied to the maintenance of the four Normal Schools of the State, and to the establishment of 48 State Scholarships (something like what our Queen's Scholarships *were*) of the annual value of £100 each, in order to maintain students at College, who may become qualified to be principal teachers in high schools (*R. S.* ch. 37, s. 1, 6). There is an annual saving of about £10,000 under this head, which, together with forfeitures, is added to the principal.

† 24*th Report*, 1861, pp. 75–77.

Free schools in Illinois, and Ohio.

‡ Such also appears to be the case in Illinois. The Act of the Legislature under which schools are established and maintained there is entitled "An Act "to establish and maintain a system of *Free* Schools." The same rule obtains in Ohio. "Rate-bills" are allowed in New York, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

townships are bound at their annual meeting, or at a special meeting called for the purpose, to raise such sums of money for the support of schools as they judge necessary; which sums shall be assessed and collected in like manner as other township taxes. Townships refusing or neglecting to raise such money, or refusing or neglecting to choose a school committee, are liable to penalties; and in this sense, though the amount of the rate is left undetermined, the support of schools by a township may be called compulsory.*

Its amount determined by the township.

The amount of the rate is determined by the voters of the township; and local notions of what constitutes an efficient school, and of what is needed in the way of supplies to make a school efficient, vary probably as widely in New as in Old England.†

Rate-bills in New York, &c.

In Connecticut, the rate-bill must not exceed $6 a year (except in the higher departments of graded schools), and it must be assessed upon all scholars at the same rate. It must be made out for the entire term; before 1856 it was levied according to daily attendance, and thus a premium was offered for absence. In Rhode Island it must not be more than $1 per term of 11 weeks, unless in graded schools, where it may amount to $2 for the higher grade. The sums levied under this head in 1864 were, in Connecticut $31,422; in Rhode Island $4,551; in New York the large amount of $429,892 as against $674,599 raised by local taxation. The system of rate-bills prevails almost exclusively in rural districts. Different opinions are entertained of its operation and effects. The Hon. H. Barnard, a very high authority, strongly impressed with the conviction that it is the duty of the parent rather than of the State to educate a child, is in its favour. In New York, the Reports of the School Commissioners on the point are very conflicting. The State Superintendent, Hon. Victor M. Rice, has a strong opinion adverse to it. He calls it "the odious "rate-bill," and is confident that "it is a serious impediment in the way of "attendance upon the schools"; and that "whatever other means may be "employed to secure the education of all the youths of the State, the *free* school, "at least, is absolutely essential to the accomplishment of that all-important "end" (*New York 11th Report*, 1855, pp. 14-48). Mr. Barnard confessed that public opinion was generally against his own view.

* For the penalties, see above, p. 17, note.

Variation in local appropriation.

† They certainly varied very widely in Massachusetts in 1864, and the following table, which I have constructed from the returns published by the Board of Education, shows how little the method of "taking an average" is worth, when the extremes are very far apart, for the purpose of indicating the real condition of things.

Township appropriations of Massachusetts in 1864 for the education of each child in the township between the ages of 5 and 15:—

1	Township	(Brookline)	contributed more than	$18	but less than	$19
1	„	(Nahant)	„ „	14	„	15
1	„	(Belmont)	„ „	13	„	14
2	„	(Dorchester and Boston)	„	11	„	12
2	„	(West Roxbury and Brighton)	„	10	„	11
5	„	„	„	9	„	10
9	„	„	„	8	„	9
13	„	„	„	7	„	8
21	„	„	„	6	„	7
39	„	„	„	5	„	6
89	„	„	„	4	„	5
104	„	„	„	3	„	4
42	„	„	„	2	„	3
4	„	„	„	1	„	2

Total number of townships = 333; average appropriation = $6.49.

Some false inferences might be drawn from this table unless it is checked by another. See page 52, 53, and note.

The effort made by the State to evoke liberality is very small. It only requires that, to meet its own aid, itself very insignificant in amount, the sum of a dollar and a half per child shall be raised by taxes on the spot—a sum considered miserably inadequate for the purpose 30 years ago, and which, it is thought, the time has now come for raising to three dollars.*

ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS.

The management and control of the schools of every grade † in the township are placed in the hands of a School Committee, consisting of any number of persons divisible by three, one-third of whom are to be elected annually, who are appointed by written ballots at the annual meeting of the township. They are paid a salary, in cities of one dollar, and in townships of a dollar and a half a day, for the time they are actually employed in discharging the duties of their office. Those duties are—

The School Committee.

Their duties.

(*a.*) To select, contract with, examine, certificate, and in case of need, dismiss teachers;

(*b.*) To visit all the public schools in the township twice in the term, to see that the scholars are properly supplied with books, and once a month to inquire into the regulation and discipline of the schools, and the habits and proficiency of the scholars therein;

(*c.*) To direct what books shall be used in the schools, subject to the limitation that "no book calculated to favour the "tenets of any particular sect of Christians shall be "purchased or used," and *to require the daily reading of some portion of the Bible in the common English version;*

(*d.*) To procure at the expense of the township a sufficient supply of text-books—(which books are purchased by the scholars at cost price, the committee having the power to remit such price to indigent parents)—and also such apparatus, books of reference, and other means of illustration as they deem necessary;‡

(*e.*) Where the township is not divided into districts—an arrangement of which we shall have to speak presently—to

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* *See 28th Report,* 1865, p. 96.

Difference between American and Canadian system.

† The American system herein differs from the Canadian. The grammar schools of Upper Canada are under the control of a different (and presumably a more intelligent) body of trustees from the Common Schools.

The school and the bookseller.

‡ This supply is provided with very different degrees of liberality. In the cities nothing can be more abundant, in many rural districts nothing can be more niggard than the supply. There is a loud and general complaint of the variety of text-books that get into the schools, seriously embarrassing the teacher. The whole arrangement appears to open a wide field to jobbery, of which the booksellers are not slow to take advantage. "The bookselling "interest of this country," said Mr. Barnard to the School-teachers' Association of Ohio, "(and I don't like to speak disrespectfully of an influence other-"wise so good and desirable) is doing more injury to our schools than any "other agency. As soon as a teacher shows practical ability, that he can "teach and administer a school well, the school-book publisher comes in and "bids $500 or $600 more a year than teaching pays, for the purpose of using "this knowledge of schools to introduce his books through the country. I have "seen some of the best talent of the country taken out of the schools for the "miserable business of changing one man's books for those of another" (*See Report of Speech in Ohio Educational Monthly for September,* 1865, p. 250).

maintain a sufficient number of school houses for the township; to keep them in order, and to provide fuel and all other things necessary for the comfort of the scholars therein at the expense of the township.

The School Committee are bound to appoint a secretary and to keep a permanent record-book, in which all their votes, orders, and proceedings are to be by him recorded.* The Secretary of the Committee.

Further, any township annually by legal votes, and any city by an ordinance of the city council, may require the School Committee annually to appoint a Superintendent of public schools,† who The Superintendent of Schools.

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* Fears are expressed by the Secretary of the Board of Education that this important duty is not unfrequently neglected, and that often the records made are so meagre and imperfect that they would possess but little value in a Court of Justice, or as a faithful history of the educational policy of a township (*24th Report* p. 102). The reference to "a Court of Justice," tempts me to remark that apparently, both in the States and in Canada, disputes about schools furnish plenty of work to the lawyers. The Reports are full of cases that have been "decided by the Courts." Secretary's duty often ill discharged.

† Superintendents of Schools have become a regular feature in the organization of cities. In New York the work demands four Assistant-Superintendents too. "The direction of a single mind," says Secretary Bontwell, "is "found to improve the discipline, give unity to the system, and challenge to the "utmost the capacities of teachers." In rural townships, however, he thinks, "the services of the School Committee will prove quite as valuable." Superintendents of Schools.

The township of Gloucester was the first in Massachusetts to appoint a Superintendent of Schools (*24th Report* p. 108). In 1863, however, the same township, to "the profound regret" of the School Committee, voted to discontinue the office. The vote was "on the ground of economy, and in view of "the depressed condition of the times," and not from any lessened sense of the value of such supervision. The first case.

In fact, *the* great desideratum of the Common School System, both in Massachusetts and generally in the States, is adequate, thorough, impartial, independent inspection of the schools. In New York and Pennsylvania a system of supervision by counties or wide districts has been introduced and is at work with tolerable success, but even here the Superintendents (or Commissioners, as they are called in New York,) appear, from their Reports, to be more or less hampered by local prejudices and jealousies, and their salary is in part provided by the district which is the sphere of their labours. They are elected, too, in Pennsylvania by the "School Directors" of the several townships; in New York by the electors of the "Assembly District" by ballot. More complete inspection needed,

A similar organization is strongly recommended by Mr. White, the State Commissioner, for the Counties of Ohio. (*Ohio 11th Report*, pp. 37, 38.) A strong argument in the same direction, based both upon general principles and upon experience, is to be found in a lecture delivered before the American Institute of Instruction in 1863 by the Rev. B. G. Northrop, Agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, in which he says, "My observations in "visiting thousands of schools throughout Massachusetts, and many in twelve "other States, have clearly proved to my mind the wisdom of maintaining a "Superintendent in all our cities and large townships, who shall devote his "whole time to the care and improvement of the schools" (p. 3). and felt to be needed.

Something like our English mode of inspection of schools by a body of perfectly independent and competent gentlemen, would be a great and valuable addition to the school system both of the United States and the Canadas. In Lower Canada, it is true, the system, in theory, does approximate to the English; for the Inspectors are appointed by the Governor, and are paid out of a central fund. But some how or other it is not popular, and I fancy considerable differences would be found to prevail in practice.

In the American cities, so far as I saw, *ex. gr.*, in New York, New Haven, Hartford, Providence, Boston, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, Detroit, the

under their direction and control shall have the supervision of the schools, with such salary as the city government, or township, may determine; and in every city in which such ordinance is in force, and in every township where such Superintendent is appointed, the School Committee shall receive no compensation, unless otherwise provided by such city government, or township.

School districts.

In 1789 an Act was passed by the Legislature of Massachusetts, with excellent intentions, but, as events have proved, with disastrous results. I refer to the Act of 1789, authorizing the division of townships into districts for school purposes. I will state first the provisions of the law as they now stand, secondly, its motives, thirdly, its effects.

Process of "districting" a township.

A township, at a meeting called for the purpose, may resolve to divide itself into districts for the support of its schools. The whole territory of the township must be divided, or the measure is illegal. But when the division has once been made it may not be altered, so as to change the taxation of lands from one district to another having a different school-house, oftener than once in 10 years.

The district becomes a corporation.

A school district becomes a body corporate with power to sue and be sued, and to take and hold in fee-simple or otherwise any estate real or personal, given or purchased, for the support of the school.

Prudential Committee.

Every township, divided into districts, is bound at its annual meeting to choose either one person or three persons in each school district, called the "prudential committee," whose duties are to provide a proper school-house for the district, and to keep it in order at the expense of the district; and, *when the township so determines*, to select and contract with the teachers. The choice of the site of the school-house, and the amount of money to be raised for erecting, purchasing, or repairing it, and for providing it with library, apparatus and other necessary furniture, is determined by vote of the district at a meeting called for that purpose.* A district obliged by law to provide a suitable school-house, but neglecting for one year so to do, is liable to a fine not exceeding $200, to be recovered by indictment, on complaint of any legal voter in the district, to be appropriated to the support of schools therein.

District taxes how levied.

In raising and assessing money in the several districts, every inhabitant of the district is to be taxed in the district in which he lives for all his personal estate, and for all the real estate he holds in the township under his own actual improvement. All other of his real estate in the same township is to be taxed in the

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superintendence of the schools was thoroughly vigorous and efficient. Strangely enough there is no Superintendent of Schools in the great city of Philadelphia.

Unfortunately, all these appointments to school trusteeships, directorships, &c., are frequently used for political ends, and I constantly heard of managers of schools who could hardly write their names.

Township may provide school-house.

* The legal voters of every township may, if they think it expedient, provide the school-houses for the several school districts at the common expense of the township. Mr. Boutwell considers this a wise policy to adopt, even when the district system exists. The functions of the Prudential Committee would then be limited to the supply of fuel, and the selection of and contracting with teachers; the latter, however, being a very important function.

district in which it lies. All the land within a township belonging to a non-resident, is taxed in the same district, such district being determined by the assessors of the township.* The money voted by the *district* is assessed on the polls and estates of the several inhabitants by the assessor of the *township*, and collected by a collector of the *township*, and when collected is placed at the disposal of the *district* committee to be by them applied to the purpose for which it was raised.† By whom assessed. by whom applied.

Two or more contiguous districts in the same township, or in adjoining townships, may combine for the purpose of maintaining a "Union school," or a school of higher grade for the benefit of the older children; but the machinery for the purpose is cumbrous and complicated, and the permission granted by the statutes "has "been exercised in a few instances only, and never," Mr. Boutwell believes, "with any advantage to the schools."‡ Union schools.

A township may at any time abolish its school districts, and take possession of their corporate property, which is to be appraised and a tax levied upon the township equal to the amount of such appraisal, and there is then to be remitted to the tax-payers of each district the appraised value of its property thus taken. In order to give an opportunity of undoing the mischief that has been done by the Act of 1789, once every three years every districted township is to take a vote upon the question, whether the district organization shall be continued or abolished; and the Secretary of the Commonwealth on the recurrence of the year, when the vote thus required should be taken, is to notify the selectmen of the several townships to that effect, and to require them to Abolition of districts.

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* The object of this provision is to secure non-resident owners of real estate against the inconvenience of paying taxes in more than one district, but it must often produce difficulties and injustice in practice. The real estate and machinery belonging to manufacturing corporations or companies are taxed in the district where they are situated; and in assessing the shares in such corporation or the personal estate of the owners of such establishments, the value of such machinery and real estate is to be first deducted from the value of such shares or personal estate. All assessments are based upon the township valuation of the preceding May, and only those are liable to be assessed, who resided or owned property in the district when the money was voted. Object of the provision.

The law, which taxes all personal property in the place where the owner resides, occasionally leads to some "smart" practice. A Boston merchant, I was told, will slip out of the city just before the first of May to Swampscott, or some other seaside residence where the municipal taxes are low, and get himself rated there, and so escape, for his personalty, the heavy Boston imposts. I happened to see the income tax returns for Swampscot, and was surprised to find so small a place containing so many rich people. I received the above explanation of the phenomenon. It would be true, I believe, of *all* taxes. Evasion of taxation.

† In case a district refuses to make suitable provision for its schools, an appeal is provided, on application of five tax-paying inhabitants of the district, through the selectmen, to the voters of the township; and if deemed expedient, the township may vote such money as is thought necessary, order an assessment thereof upon the district, and finally expend it by the agency of the selectmen, the township School Committee, or a Special Committee chosen for the purpose. (See 24*th Report*, p. 123-4.) Township's power in case of district's neglect.

‡ 24*th Report*, 1861, p. 125. I don't know why this should be. In the State of New York "Union Schools" of a similar description appear to be the most popular and flourishing of all the rural schools.

insert a special article for that purpose in the warrant summoning the annual meeting.

Such is the law which is thought to have worked so ill for the interests of education in Massachusetts and the New England States generally.* Its original object was not only innocent, but

Object of the Act of 1789.

Opinions of the district system.

* "I consider," says Mr. Horace Mann, "the law of 1789, authorizing "townships to divide themselves into districts, the most unfortunate law on "the subject of common schools ever enacted in the State. During the last "few years, several townships have abolished their districts, and assumed the "administration of their schools in their corporate capacity; and I learn that "many other townships are contemplating the same reform" (*10th Report*, 1849, p. 37). To this opinion Mr. Boutwell assents, trusting "that the day "will again and speedily be seen, when every township in its municipal capa- "city will manage its schools, and equalize the expenses of education" (*24th Report*, 1860, p. 113).

Such anticipations, however, judging from the latest reports of School Committees, are rather sanguine. It appears there still exists strong "jealousy for "district freedom." Another Committee "cannot conceive why the inhabi- "tants of the township cling so closely to the district system as if the education "of their children depended on it, when, in reality, it does gross injustice to "half of the children in the township." Another report, "So fully are the "larger part of our citizens attached to this system, so fully are they persuaded "that centralized power is dangerous, that the township ought not to be "entrusted with the entire care of the schools (although its officers preside in "every other department), and that the reserved right of having an agent to "have the care of their school-houses, and to employ the teachers of their "children is a privilege of vital importance, not lightly to be relinquished— "that we do not with much hope look for better things" (See *Massachusetts 28th Report*, 1865, pp. 20, 153, 164, &c.).

Its anti-republican character.

And yet to some minds the district system appears essentially anti-republican. "The district system," say the Committee of Shutesbury, "tends directly to "build up society on the same principles of aristocracy upon which society is "built in some German states—by obliging people of limited means who are "located in the sparsely populated districts to forego the advantages of educa- "tion, and sell out at a sacrifice, and remove to the villages, thus causing the "land to accumulate in the hands of a few, and building up a landed aris- "tocracy. Cannot the united wisdom of the township devise some plan which "shall place our public schools on a more thoroughly republican basis, and "give a more equal advantage to all?" (*28th Massachusetts Report*, p. 153). In a similar spirit, the Superintendent of Schools in Pennsylvania recommends the establishment of "graded schools"— which are almost an impossibility under the district organization—as "having a tendency to keep down that spirit of "aristocracy in education which is too apt to prevail in our towns and villages" (*Report for* 1864, p. 28).

The normal organization in New England.

The district system is the normal organization for school purposes in the New England States. In Rhode Island there are 33 townships, containing 400 districts. In Connecticut 162 townships, with 1,609 districts. In the latter State the average number of children in each district between the ages of 4 and 16 is 71.

In Massachusetts and Rhode Island the appropriations of the districts, that is, the money they raise by taxation, are not separated, in the Reports, from the appropriations of the townships. But in Connecticut, in 1864, the amounts available for school purposes, from the different sources of income, were as follows:—From the State Fund, $177,816; from the *townships*, $87,704; from *districts*, 140,414; from rate-bills, $31,422; from other sources, $13,786.

The evil of districts felt in Connecticut.

In Connecticut the evils of the district system are felt, though perhaps not so vividly, as well as in Massachusetts. In his Report for 1865, the Superintendent says, "It is not to be expected that good schools of each grade can be "brought to the home of each child; but every township, borough, and city "should have schools established at such points, and so provided with all

praiseworthy. In the preamble of the Act, it is stated that "whereas by means of the dispersed situation of the inhabitants

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"necessary facilities, that a good elementary education may be obtained by all "persons residing within their limits. Were graded schools organized in all "places where a sufficient number of children can be conveniently brought "together, and the ungraded country schools thoroughly classified, and a "good public high school established in every township where practicable, "there would be few children of the state not enjoying school privileges, and "the school system would be greatly improved. Many of these advantages "can be secured under the present arrangement of school districts, by the "action of the township in establishing schools of a higher grade, but in many "places the opportunity of providing economically and wisely for all of school "age would be much increased were schools entirely under the direction of the "townships" (Pp. 34, 35).

School organization of the State of New York.

In the State of New York, the "township" almost disappears as an element in the organization of the school system, its only important constituents being (a) the county; (b) the district. There are 60 counties and 13 cities, which are practically treated as counties. There are 11,717 districts; 285 in cities, and 11,432 in the rural townships. School districts are formed, and may be altered by School Commissioners—the administrative officers of the system, which in this State is essentially bureaucratic—one to each "assembly district" (the electoral area which sends a member to the State Assembly), or about two to a county. The number of districts in each township may be as many as convenient. For each district, qualified voters elect one or three trustees, there being a general preference for only one, whose functions are very similar to that of the "prudential committee" in Massachusetts, but somewhat more extensive. Whatever local taxes are raised for the support of the schools, are raised by the *districts*, and not by the *townships*. The incidence of taxation is often very unequal. "Many of our small districts," reports the Commissioner of the Second District of Otsego county, "are robbed of their resources by "landholders who hold large tracts of land in them, but who *live* in other "districts. This trouble would be avoided if the lands were taxed in the dis-"tricts where they belong." (*New York 11th Report*, 1865, p. 270). Of another district, in Cayuga county, it is reported, that "it has not taxed itself, "nor raised one cent by rate-bill during three years out of the four last past. "The school is literally free, supported entirely by the public money." (*Ibid.* p. 119.)

Its evils.

Remedy suggested.

The remedy suggested by New Yorkers for this state of things would make the hair on the head of those good Massachusetts citizens who dread any tendency to "centralisation" stand on end. "Would it not be better," asks the Commissioner, "for the State to take the matter of educating its children "in hand, district the territory, build the school-houses, employ and pay the "teachers, and then compel the attendance of the children, as they do in "Germany? Would it not be economy? Could not the moneys now "received from the various school funds, and a revenue by tax upon the pro-"perty of the state equal to what is now raised by tax and rate-bill, be more "judiciously expended, and furnish much better teachers and schools than we "now have? I am inclined to believe that with the same expenditure, in the "hands of a competent educational bureau, our Common Schools could be "improved one hundred per cent." (*Ibid.*)

New York Union Schools.

A peculiar feature in the New York system, arising out of the felt evil of districts, are the "Union Free Schools," which are becoming general in the State. They may be established by a two-thirds vote of the inhabitants of the combining districts, at a meeting summoned by the school trustees on the requisition of fifteen persons out of each such district. Their object is to diminish expense, simplify machinery, and secure a more perfect classification and higher grading. Primary schools are sometimes retained by their side for the convenience of the smaller children. When Union Schools are established, the old trustees are superseded, and a Board of Education of not less than three nor more than nine members (divided into three classes, one class vacating office each year), is established in their room. They form a corpo-

" of several townships in this Commonwealth, the children and " youth cannot be collected in any one place for instruction, it " has thence become expedient that the townships in the circum- " stances aforesaid should be divided into separate districts for the " purposes aforesaid."

By this Act, however, no specific duties in regard to the schools were imposed on the districts; they were not constituted corporations; and the organization contemplated was apparently nothing more than what exists in the State of Ohio at the present day, where the townships indeed are nominally divided into sub-districts, but retain in their own hands the entire control of the schools.

The real mischief done in 1817 and 1827.

The real mischief was done by later legislation. In 1817, the school districts were made corporations in name, and in 1827 were empowered to elect prudential committees, to whom were made over the care of the school-houses and the important duty of selecting and contracting with teachers. The system as it now stands, is fraught with evil of every kind. There is the evil of double management—a sort of *imperium in imperio*—by

What this mischief is.

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ration, with power to levy taxes for school purposes, which the township has no power to refuse. All money required to pay teachers' wages in these schools, or in the academical department thereof, is to be raised by tax, not by rate-bill. An Academical Department—equivalent to the New England High School—may be established by the Board, whenever they think there is a demand for such instruction; or an existing academy may be adopted by the Board, as the Academical Department. Such Academical Department is further under the visitation of a Central Board called the " Regents of the University," who have the supervision of all the higher educational institutions subsidized by the State. Teachers in Union Schools are to be employed at the rate of not less than one for every fifty pupils. If the inhabitants refuse to provide for the necessary expenditure of the school, the Board may levy the requisite tax on their own authority.

Organization in Illinois.

In Illinois, again, the district and the district officers (called School Directors) are much more important elements of the school system than the township and the township-officers (called School Trustees). The whole management and control of the school, and the appointment and dismissal of the teachers, are in the hands of the " directors." The only tax annually levied upon property is levied on the property of the district by the directors, assessed by the *county* clerk, and collected by the *county* collector. It must be be sufficient to maintain a school in the district for six months under a qualified teacher, which is the condition of sharing in the State's appropriation. The township trustees merely deal with the *finance* of the schools, ascertaining the amount of the several funds, and distributing them according to a certain prescribed method, but have no direct power of interfering with their constitution or management.

In Ohio.

In Ohio, on the contrary, the district organization does not prevail, but the Board of Education of each township is supreme in all points relating to the schools. The Board, it is true, divide the township into sub-districts, but that is merely for territorial convenience, and does not call into existence any other functionaries or any subordinate organization; and it is expressly provided that no sub-district shall contain within its limits less than sixty resident scholars.

In Ohio, however, every city, town, or incorporated village, containing not less than 300 hundred inhabitants, is a separate school district, under a separate Board of Education of three persons, clothed with the same powers as the ordinary township Board. (See *the School Laws of New York, Illinois and Ohio*).

the school committee of the township, and the prudential committee of the district.* There is great inequality, and sometimes gross hardship, both in distributing the public money and in levying the local taxes.† The principle of subdivision of

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* "The Prudential Committee and the Superintending Committee," says Mr. Mann, "are different hands of the same body, and if they are not animated and moved by a common spirit, either one can defeat the most praiseworthy efforts of the other." (10*th Report*, p. 55.) "We know we shall encounter opposition," says the School Committee of Methuen, Mass., "but we consider it our duty to express our opinion that the hiring and selection of teachers should be left to the Committee of the township rather than to the Prudential Committee of each district. As far as we are concerned, we do not seek for ourselves the power, nor do we envy the Prudential Committee the privilege of selection. But it seems hard that the responsibility of the success of the schools of the township should rest on our shoulders, while our hands are, in great measure, tied. We know that the great bugbear of "consolidation" and all that loose talk about "the want of democracy" in the proposed change, will be brought to bear against us. But is there any more "consolidation" in this than in the management of other township affairs? Do we call it consolidation when we intrust to our Board of selectmen a general superintendence over the affairs of the township? In making a contract as to any other subject-matter, do we have one man to engage the contractor, and another to decide whether he is qualified to perform the contract? And is there any great "want of democracy" shown in proposing that the township, which by its taxes pays for the support of its schools, should direct in what manner its money should be expended." (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, 1865, p. 39.)

Illustrations of the evil of double management.

† One-half of the income of the State School Fund is distributed among the cities and townships in proportion to the number of children between the ages of five and 15 which they contain. In 1864 it yielded at the rate of 23.4 cents not quite a quarter of a dollar per child. It is apportioned by the Secretary and Treasurer of the Commonwealth, and paid to the Treasurers of the several townships. Townships forfeit their share, unless they have raised by local taxation at least $1.50 per child. It is to be spent exclusively on wages and board of teachers, fuel of schools, and care of fires and school-rooms; not on buildings, rent, repairs or libraries, the cost of which must be defrayed by separate local appropriations. This State income is applied by the School Committee of the township to the support of their schools according to their judgment, and is not subject to the vote of the township. "It *can* be used," says Mr. Boutwell, "to redress inequalities;" but of course it also gives scope for the display of preferences and partialities.

Principle of distribution of the public money.

The *township* tax (where townships are districted), goes to two objects only, viz., wages and board of teachers, and supply of proper apparatus to the school. The *district* tax goes to building or rent of school-house, repairs of the same, and supply of fuel and furniture. No returns are given of the amount of district taxes separate from the township taxes in the Massachusetts Report, but they cannot be very considerable, except when a school-house has to be built. In New York State the cost of a school-house is limited by law to a maximum of $800, unless with the consent of the Commissioner of the district. In Ohio the average cost of school-houses in 1864 was $820; in small rural districts, therefore, the cost would probably vary from $300 to $400.

The township and district tax.

With regard to hardships in the incidence of taxation, see above p. 29, note, and also the provisions of the law stated on pp. 26, 27. But upon this whole point, I will quote the words of Mr. Horace Mann. "The circumstances of the districts are very various. Some contain but half-a-dozen scholars. Some have only a few small and poor farms; in others there is a concentration of wealth. Hence, in a township containing a dozen districts it often happens that a majority of them pay but a small portion of the school tax, while the residue of it is principally derived from a few of the rest. It is obvious, therefore, that no specific rule can be devised for cases so various. This is probably

Unequal incidence of taxation.

townships is frequently carried to such an absurd extreme that schools are found with not more than half-a-dozen children in them.* The unnecessary multiplication of schools leads to an unnecessary multiplication of teachers, and that to a reduction of salaries, and this to the employment often of incompetent persons.†

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the reason why the law has submitted all questions relative to the distribution of the school money among the districts to the townships respectively.

Inequalities of distribution.

"The manner of distribution has been quite as various as the circumstances which the townships have had to consult. In some cases, where no striking inequalities existed in the condition of the districts, the money has been equally distributed among them. In other cases, one-half, two-thirds, three-fourths, or some other fractional part has been divided equally among the districts, and the residue according to the number of children they respectively contained, between the ages of four and 16 years, or between the ages of four and 21. In some, the division has been made according to the number of heads of families in each district; and in others according to the number of houses in each. Devices have been innumerable; and for want of recognizing a natural standard, the most arbitrary ones have been adopted. There is reason to fear that in many cases an equitable principle of distribution has not been applied. The stronger districts, being able to outvote the weaker, have sometimes assigned to themselves the lion's share." (10*th Report*, 1849, pp. 45,46.)

Multiplication of small schools in Massachusetts;

* "As proof and specimen of this," says Hon. Joseph White, "I quote from the Report of one of the townships, which contains ten districts, and an average of 17 scholars to each, the following description of one of the schools: "No. 7, or Macedonia, district. But one term. Miss ———, teacher. This was the smallest school in the township, there being but *four* scholars, and two of these never having attended school before. 'Yet,' say the Committee, as if equally surprised and gratified at the result, 'perhaps no school in the township made more rapid progress than this.' Nor is this a solitary case. Another township appears to have 88 scholars divided among 10 districts, giving to each an average of less than nine. In 1852, Dr. Sears found that in 30 townships, whose whole number of districts was 345, there were 193, 'in which the whole attendance fluctuated between five and 15.' I fear that the same number of townships might be selected now, whose school statistics would show no better results." (28*th Report*, p. 77.)

and New York.

A similar state of things exists in New York. "In my report last year," says a Commissioner, "I alluded to the town of Ira, by way of illustrating the injudiciousness of the school district system, and the expensiveness and inutility of dividing and subdividing districts till the schools are diminished to one-fifth of the number a good teacher is able to instruct. No township has better houses, and more of them to the square mile . . . . but the schools are very small. A number of them when visited contained but five or six pupils. This is the result of a comparatively sparse population." (*New York* 11*th Report*, 1865, p. 121.) Of course the motive of this "dividing and subdividing" is to bring a school as near as possible to every man's door, and all other considerations are sacrified to this one.

The district system, as affecting salaries and qualifications of teachers.

† "It is the opinion of the Committee that, while a township retains the district system, a "sufficient number of schools" must equal the number of districts; in other words, that the people in each district are entitled to an amount of money that shall enable them to keep their school 24 weeks each year under a good teacher. It will be seen, that with the exception of No. 1 and No. 7, not a district in the township is able to comply with the requirements of the Statute. In some of the districts the schools are very short, being but little more than one-half as long as the law requires. Doubtless such districts have a legal remedy, but we would not advise them to resort to it till all other means fail.

"Some of our best teachers cannot now be employed to conduct our schools, because the wages offered by the Prudential Committees are so low; and this evil is more likely to increase than to diminish. A young lady who can earn

Regular gradation of schools is rendered impracticable.* The appointment of teachers continually becomes a matter of jobbery or nepotism.† And there is a prevalence of those false and narrow notions of economy that are the characteristic and the bane of small neighbourhoods.‡ Less than these would be grounds enough

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a dollar a day in a shop, will not teach school for two dollars a week ; and the Committee do not know where suitable teachers can be found, unless by some means their wages can be raised . . . We shall have occasion to speak in another part of our Report respecting the qualifications of those who offer themselves as candidates for teachers, and only add in this connection that the tendency of the existing state of things is obviously to deprive our schools of the services of the best instructors." (*Athol School Committee in Mass. 28th Report*, p. 92).

What is meant by a "graded school."

* Here is not an improper place to define what Americans mean by a "graded school." "A graded school is a school in which the pupils are divided into classes according to their attainments, and in which all the pupils of each class attend to the same branches of study at the same time." (*The Graded School, by W. H. Wells, Superintendent of Public Schools, Chicago*, p. 7). This is a definition by an established authority, and yet I should have rather called such a "classified" than a "graded" school.

"By the term 'graded schools' is meant schools in which there are two or more departments, either all in one building, or having some of the grades in separate buildings, and all under one general Superintendent or Principal, with one teacher for each room, and the pupils to be promoted from the lower to the higher grade as they attain a specified degree of advancement." (*Pennsylvania Report for* 1864, p. 27.) This is much nearer my notion of the received meaning of the term "graded school;" and it is obvious that the district system which assigns all the children, in half-a-dozen classes, to *one* teacher, is fatal to a gradation of schools, which in the eyes of the American educationists is the one condition of their successful working.

Motives that often rule in the choice of teachers.

† "Ties of blood, friendship, or caprice often decide in the employment of a teacher."—"Some relation or friend is chosen, too often without reference to his fitness for the post."—"The practice of employing a relative or a particular "friend to teach is, we fear, becoming a growing evil. Some of our pru- "dential agents are elected to that office with the agreement to hire some "particular one, independently of his ability to instruct. Persons wholly unfit "to take charge of a school are in this way employed, and the School Committee "are expected and required to approve them, especially if the applicant's book- "knowledge is satisfactory. This practice is a strong and unanswerable argu- "ment against the district system, and will undoubtedly, sooner or later, "procure its abolition. Some prudential agents have maintained that their "favourite teacher has a right to keep the school, whether she obtains a certifi- "cate from the School Committee or not, provided that the majority in the "district want her." (*School Committees' Report in 28th Mass. Report*, 1865, pp. 20, 40, 59.)

Law of New York.

In New York State the law expressly requires that "no teacher shall be "within two degrees of relationship to a trustee, except with the approval of "a majority of the inhabitants." Yet even there the same complaints are heard. "So long as trustees *insist* on the Commissioner granting licences to "their friends and neighbours, feigning that such are qualified for *their* school, "'because it is small and backward,' so long shall we have poor instructors of "youth." (*N.Y. 11th Report*, 1865, p. 319.)

"Quid leges sine moribus?" "Chez nous," said a Pennsylvanian gentleman to De Tocqueville, "il arrive quelque fois que la loi manque de force "quand la majorité ne l'appuie point." (*De Tocq.*, vol. ii. p. 400.)

Picture of the district system in Rhode Island.

‡ I quote from the Rhode Island Report for 1864 a picture of the working of the district system, which I dare say could be drawn of other townships besides the one that sat for it.

"There is a class in the township that have more or less to do with our schools, who might think it doing them an injustice to leave them out of this

for the strong opinion of Mr. Horace Mann already quoted, that the Act of 1789, which authorized the division of townships into

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report. We know of nothing that would suit them better than to call them the all-knowing class, for they profess to know it all. Their doctrine is something like the following. 'Visits to the school-room are of no benefit to the 'school, especially by the Committee, and it is money thrown away to pay them 'for visiting the schools. Teachers are paid altogether too much: they labour 'but six hours a day, and it is mere play compared with the labours of the 'husbandman. They are models of laziness; their whole object is to get their 'living in the easiest way.' Every plan that was not in existence in their school-days is nonsense. Some go so far as to condemn the public school system, and contend that the old system of every man hiring his own schoolmaster and paying him himself, was altogether best. Some of these men claim to be the leading politicians of the township; but as we think their creeds will do but little injury, we will make but few comments on them. Their noise is worse than their influence."

The same Committee, in reference to a particular district of the township, are again sufficiently lively in their description.

"There seem to be too many parties and too many knowing ones in this district for the success of the school. Comparatively speaking, the northern portion of the district disagrees with the southern portion, and the middle part cannot agree with either north or south. Sometimes a teacher will seem to give general satisfaction to all parties; but for the most of the time since the school-house was erected, there has been more or less strife here, either about the school or school-house. The teachers, many times, have been scared or driven off, and the schools broken up. There are a few in the district, we think, that strive to have peace in the school, while there are others who seem to glory in a fuss. We would say plainly to the inhabitants of this district, 'You can 'never have a properous school till you all co-operate together for its welfare. 'As long as you keep pulling apart, disagreeing with each other, and allowing 'yourself to be so *dis*interested (*sic*; apparently an American sense of the word) 'in your school, just so long must you expect it to suffer.' We, or our successors, should hereafter allow none but old and experienced teachers to enter this school; teachers well fitted to govern and instruct; such, too, as are qualified to meet opposition with independence and fortitude. We would forewarn young and inexperienced teachers to keep out of this district. Too many of this denomination have gone in here, and got badly pell-melled. There are altogether too many fault-finding ones, disinterested ones (*sic*), and all-knowing ones in this district for young teachers to contend with."

They conclude with some very sensible advice that would benefit other neighbourhoods besides the one to which it was originally given.

"In conclusion, we would earnestly solicit all the people of the township to work together, with zeal and earnestness, for the prosperity of your schools. Tear down your old good-for-nothing school-houses, and build new ones: visit your schools often and encourage others around you to visit them: appoint the best qualified men for your school officers: never allow your neighbourhood difficulties and prejudices towards each other to have anything to do with your schools: recollect that union is the greatest support of your schools, and that disunions, contentions, and disinterestedness (*sic*) all serve to destroy their prosperity. Never allow yourselves to be over-anxious to select out all the bad qualities of the teacher and school, and on the other hand never to think of their good qualities. Remember that teachers are not perfect beings who never err. Having so many different dispositions and minds to deal with, and so much bad influence repeatedly enstamped upon the minds of the scholars outside of the school to contend with, you cannot reasonably expect that everything in the school will, at all times, move on in perfect order and harmony. Recollect, too, that that teacher who is influenced by good principles and motives, and who has correct ideas of what his duties are to children, and then endeavours to discharge those duties honorably and manfully, with a clear conscience in the sight of his Maker, has no easy task before him. His labours are fatiguing, and perplexing, and wearing both to mind and body, and he

districts, was "the most unfortunate law on the subject of common "schools ever enacted by the State." It is only the high public spirit which animates the larger proportion of the Massachusetts municipalities, and which keeps the rest up to the mark, if not from the spirit of emulation, at any rate from a sense of shame, that prevents a law so pregnant with possibilities of mischief from being absolutely fatal to the schools.

As far as regards enforcing attendance in the schools, the laws of Massachusetts are as precise and peremptory as could be desired; but to no point does the remark of M. de Tocqueville's Pennsylvanian friend more forcibly apply:—"In America the law is "powerless when it is not supported by public sentiment." In spite of legal enactments and penalties, "absenteeism and truancy" continue to be the great, and, indeed, the increasing evil of American schools.* Attendance of Scholars.

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needs all the influence you can exert in behalf of the welfare of his school, in order to do up his work successfully. Hoping that these remarks may have the desired effect of producing a reformation in the minds of all the worthy people of E—— in regard to their schools, we will now close up with our best wishes and desires for the future prosperity of the schools." (*Nineteenth Rhode Island Report*, pp. 119, 120, 123.)

These extracts are interesting in several ways. They exhibit views that are widely prevalent in the United States. They show that the practical difficulties which encompass a school are much the same under any system, whether rate-supported and uniform, or voluntary and various. They point out also where the shoe really pinches under a system of rate-supported schools, even when that system is free from a further element of embarrassment, the *odium theologicum*. I do not observe that any of these difficulties arise out of *religious* prejudices. Nobody in America, except the Roman Catholics, questions the propriety, indeed the necessity, of maintaining intact the undenominational character of the schools. Indeed, on no other basis, in a country so infinitely broken up into different religious creeds, could a system of common public schools be maintained. Remarks on these extracts.

* That the two evils are increasing does not admit of a doubt. The testimony on the matter is unanimous. Evidence of the increase of truancy and absenteeism.

In the President's address to the Ohio State Teachers' Association, he calls loudly for "a law to check the growing evil of truancy and absenteeism." (*Ohio Educational Monthly, September*, 1865, p. 267.)

The Ohio State Commissioner says, "The obligation to make all possible "effort to check and suppress the growing evils of truancy and absenteeism "has never been so great as at the present time. The evident increase of these "evils, the prolific source of juvenile rowdyism and crime, is a fact of the "deepest concern to every good citizen." (*Report for* 1865, p. 39).

The New York City Superintendent, Mr. Randall, thus expresses himself. "The dictates of self-preservation demand that the thousands, and tens of "thousands of destitute and vagrant children now roaming about our streets "and alleys, untaught and undisciplined, should be reclaimed from their de-"grading and dangerous associations, and gathered into our public and private "schools. The whole number of children between the ages of five and 21 "residing in the city is estimated at 250,000. This estimate is believed to be "much under the number." [?, the population of New York being not more than 800,000.] "The average number of such children in regular attendance "upon our public schools, including the Free Academy, Evening Schools, and "corporate charitable institutions of the city participating in the School Fund, "does not exceed, upon the most liberal estimate, 90,000. We cannot, therefore, "escape the conviction that there are not far from 100,000 children within the

We have already seen that, irrespectively of race, colour, or religious opinions, every child has a right to claim admission into the school of the district in which he resides. The law not only secures the right of the children, but attempts to enforce the duty of the parents. The provisions having this end in view are as follows:*

Parents to send children to school under penalty.

"Every person having under his control a child between the age of eight and 14 years shall annually during the continuance of his control send such child to some public school in the city or township in which he resides, at least twelve weeks, if the public schools of such city or township so long continue, six weeks of which time shall be consecutive; and for every neglect of such duty the party offending shall forfeit to the use of such city or township a sum not exceeding $20. But if it appears on the inquiry of the truant-officers or School Committee of any city or township, or upon the trial of any prosecution, that the party so neglecting was not able, by reason of poverty, to send such child to school, or to furnish him with the means of education, or that such child has been otherwise furnished with the means of education for a like period of time, or has already acquired the branches of learning taught in the public schools, or that his bodily or mental condition has been such as to prevent his attendance at school or application to study for the period required, the penalty before mentioned shall not be incurred.

Inquiry to be made into cases of neglect.

"The truant-officers and the School Committee of the several cities and townships shall inquire into all cases of neglect of the duty prescribed in the preceding section, and ascertain from the persons neglecting, the reason, if any, thereof; and shall forthwith give notice of all violations, with the reasons, to the treasurer of the city or township; and if such treasurer wilfully neglects or

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" city who either attend no school, or whose means of instruction are restricted " to the very briefest period" (*Report for* 1865, pp. 4-6).

Mr. Assistant-Superintendent Calkins puts the number of absentees at 40,000 (*Ibid.* p. 82). Calculations of this kind are rather loose everywhere, and particularly loose in America, the fact not being disguised that statistical returns, with all their apparent completeness, are still very untrustworthy. The Census returns, which were being taken by the separate States while I was in the country, instead of being made up, as with us, from the date of a single night, appeared to take a fortnight or more in their collection; and dealing with so locomotive a people must, one would think, be full of inaccuracies.

The Rev. B. G. Northrop, Agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, reports: " No fact connected with our schools has impressed me so sadly as " the extent of truancy and non-attendance, and the strange apathy of the " public as to this fruitful form of juvenile crime. This great evil calls loudly " for a remedy. In a few townships the laws in reference to truants and " absentees from school are faithfully executed, and with the happiest results; " while in others, these laws are overlooked or utterly disregarded...School " Committees can render no more important service to the public than by " combining their own efforts, and enlisting the cooperation of their several " constituents to repress this alarming evil" (*Quoted in Second Report on Truancy and Compulsory Education, by Hon. J. D. Philbrick, City Superintendent of Boston Schools*, p. 47).

* *Revised Statutes*, ch. 41, s. 1, 2.

refuses to prosecute any person liable to the penalty provided in the preceeding section, he shall forfeit the sum of $20."

Township may make bye-laws on truancy and non-attendance.

"Each city and township may make all needful provisions and arrangements concerning habitual truants and children not attending school, or without any regular and lawful occupation, or growing up in ignorance, between the ages of five and 16 years; and also all such byelaws respecting such children as shall be deemed most conducive to the welfare and good order of such city or township; and there shall be annexed to such byelaws suitable penalties, not exceeding $20 for any one breach, provided that the said byelaws be approved by the Superior Court of the county. A minor convicted under such byelaws may, at the discretion of the Justice or Court having jurisdiction in the case, instead of the fine mentioned in the preceding section, or in default of payment thereof, be committed to any such institution of instruction, house of reformation, or suitable situation provided for the purpose, for such time not exceeding two years, as such Justice or Court may determine."

Massachusetts "Factory Act."

"No child between 12 and 15 shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment, unless within twelve months next preceding the term of such employment they have attended some public or private day-school under teachers approved by the School Committee of the place in which such school was kept, at least one term of eleven weeks, and unless they attend such a school for a like period during each twelve months of such employment. Children under 12 years of age shall not be employed unless they have attended a like school for a term of eighteen weeks within the twelve months next preceding their employment, and a like term during each 12 months of such employment."

"No child under 12 years of age shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment for more than 10 hours a day. The owner or superintendent of a manufacturing establishment who employs a child in violation of any of the preceding provisions, is liable to a penalty of $50 for each offence."*

The law of Connecticut.

* The Connecticut law varies somewhat from that of Massachusetts. It is this:—"All parents and those who have the care of children shall bring them up "in some honest and lawful calling or employment, and shall instruct them or "cause them to be instructed, in reading, writing, English grammar, geography, "and the elements of arithmetic. The select-men, in their respective townships, "shall inspect the conduct of the heads of families, and if they find any who "neglect the education of the children under their care, they may admonish "them to attend to their duty; and if they continue to be negligent, whereby the "children grow rude, stubborn, and unruly, they shall, with the advice of a "justice of the peace, take such children from their parents, or those who have "the charge of them, and bind them out to some proper master—males till 21, "females till 18 years of age—that they may be properly educated and brought "up in a lawful calling or employment."

Not strictly enforced.

The State Superintendent of Schools, commenting on this law in his Report for 1864 (p. 18), says—"The provisions of this section *have sometimes been enforced*, but facts are too abundant to admit of a doubt that there are many children in the State whose education has been neglected in open violation of

The law as it is, not operative.

The law, as will be observed, is emphatic enough; but I believe that its provisions are nearly, if not quite, inoperative. Public

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the laws. Were there some milder penalty than removal from the home of the parents it is believed that the law would be more strictly enforced."

Apprenticing obsolete.

I was informed by a Connecticut gentleman, himself a large employer of skilled labourer, that the practice of apprenticing is almost, if not entirely, obsolete in the United States. Such is the demand for labour that boys earn wages at once.

Factory Act of Connecticut.

The Connecticut law, with regard to the employment of children in factories is identical with that of Massachusetts, except that the penalty for a breach of it is only $25 instead of $50. It is also made incumbent on the school visitors to examine into the situation of the children so employed in their several districts, and to report any violations of the law to some informing officer. On this head the Superintendent observes: "Several townships have enforced this Act, and the public schools have had largely increased attendance in consequence. I believe it would be more generally enforced were the age fixed at 14 years instead of 15 (*Report U. S.* p. 19).

The law truancy in Rhode Island

In Rhode Island, again, as in Massachusetts, permission is given to the several townships to make such byelaws as they may deem best suited for the repression of truancy; such ordinances and byelaws, however, not to take effect till approved by the Commissioner of Public Schools. The penalties are milder; if a fine, it must not exceed $10; if the child is committed to an institution of instruction, it must not be for a longer period of one year, and the institution must not be a place used for the reception of criminals, or a reform school. (*School Acts of Rhode Island*, p. 24, 25.) There appears to be no law in Rhode Island upon the employment of children in factories, though considering the development of manufactures in that State, such a law might be thought to be required.

The law in New York, Ohio, Illinois.

I do not notice any provision upon the subject, either of absenteeism or of truancy in the school laws of Ohio, Illinois, or New York. In New York city, however, there is a department of the police force specially charged with the duty of looking after truants, called "truant-officers." But they are only seven in number, and quite unable to contend with the mass of truancy and absenteeism that is asserted to exist in that city. Their operations for 1864 are thus reported by the City Superintendent of Schools. "The number of truant "children reported by the several teachers of the city to the police during "the past year was 4,663, of whom 2,880 were found absent from good cause, "the residence of 300 was not found, 83 were arrested and sent back to school, "145 sent to the juvenile asylum, 275 remained truants, and 1,750 were "induced to attend school regularly."

Truant officers in New York city.

The duties of the truant-officers are very delicate, and much of the success of the plan depends upon the tact and good feeling of the persons employed to carry it out.

Juvenile Asylum.

The Juvenile Asylum (just referred to), and the Children's Aid Society at New York are two admirable associations, supported by voluntary benevolence, but subsidized by the Board of Education, for dealing with neglected children. They are received as boarders, and retained under discipline and instruction for a period varying from three months to two years, till their characters can be ascertained and vouched for, and are then transported in squads of 30 or 40 at a time through accredited agents, to the Western States, where they are eagerly sought after by the farmers, taken into their employ, and sometimes even adopted into their families. About 2000 boys and girls are thus removed out of the way of direct temptations to crime every year. I visited the Juvenile Asylum, and was quite charmed with its arrangements, and with the tone that appeared to pervade the whole establishment.

Boston system.

In Boston, also, truant-officers exist, and are said "quietly and unostentatiously to have done much good in checking vagrancy and vagabondism." But their position is hardly adjusted to the satisfaction of the School Committee, to whom they appear to make no direct report; and an opinion is expressed

sentiment, so omnipotent in America, is not with it; and it stands, therefore, almost a dead letter upon the Statute-books.*

A demand for compulsory attendance.

Meanwhile from many sections of the community, and especially from those who would be called the educationists, the cry is rising both loud and vehement, that greater stringency is required in the law, and that compulsory attendance is the proper correlative of "free schools." For, it is argued, if the State taxes me, who perhaps have no children, towards the support of schools, "for the security of society", I have a right to claim from the State, for the security of the same society, that the schools which I am taxed to maintain shall be attended by those for whose benefit they were designed.† At the meeting of the Ohio State Teachers' Association which I attended at Cincinnati, the subject was very ably discussed in the presence of 300 or 400 teachers. A report, emanating from a committee that had been appointed to consider the question, was submitted, which "regarded truancy as a great and

Resolution proposed by the Ohio teachers.

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that their official action, so far as it pertains to the schools, should be directed by that board. (*Boston Annual Report for* 1864, p. 44.)

Change in the Massachusetts law.

By a Statute of 1862 (chs. 21 and 207) the duty of making byelaws relating to the matter of truancy was made *obligatory* on the township of Massachusetts, instead of remaining *permissive* only. I am not aware to what extent the obligation has been recognized, or what have been the effects of the change. From the report of the School Committee of Dedham, where such byelaws have been passed, very little, if any, abatement of the evil appears to have followed (*See Massachusetts 28th Report,* 1865. pp. 168, 169).

(*) I do not mean that "public sentiment" is not in favour of the repression of truancy, but not through the medium of pains and penalties.

The Maine Liquor Law.

Other laws, and for the same reason, are in the same plight of abeyance. The "liquor law," which originated in Maine, is also the law of Massachusetts and Connecticut, but its enforcement is now, I believe, never attempted. A Newhaven gentleman told me that a phrase commonly substituted for the ordinary invitation to "take a drink," is "Will you violate the law?" and during my visit to the country I read a paragraph from an Augusta (Maine) newspaper, stating that intemperance had got to a height in that neighbourhood which it had never reached before.

Again, the question forces itself upon the mind, "Quid leges, sine moribus?" and one sighs over the folly of legislating in obedience to fanatical agitation, rather than in harmony with the general conscience of society.

Argument of the Ohio Commissioner of Schools.

† "Our system of free schools is built on this principle, viz., that the only sure basis for universal liberty is universal education. Its entire scope and expense are justified upon the ground that the highest security of the State, and the well-being of society depend upon the universal diffusion of intelligence and virtue, the fruits of education. To meet this great necessity of free government the free school stands with open doors. But why not carry out this principle to its logical result? The mere *provision* for the education of all the youth of the State is not its security, but the universal enjoyment of such provision. Free schools are only the means: the end sought is actual universal education. If it is the duty of the State to provide free schools as a means of universal education, it is also its duty to see that such means accomplish the desired end. In other words, the right to take one man's property to educate another man's children carries with it the duty of seeing to it that the said children receive the benefits of the education thus provided." (*Ohio 11th Report,* 1865, p. 39.) Similar sentiments are expressed by the school visitors of the township of Canterbury, Connecticut. (*See Connecticut Report for* 1865, pp. 50, 51.) Among their arguments it is stated as "a well-attested truth that property in "the vicinity of a good school is held at a higher price on that account, and "will command a higher rate in the market."

" growing evil, and the fruitful source of crime," and felt that " the " evil could not be effectually removed without legislation." A resolution, therefore, was offered, " That a Committee should be appointed to memorialize the next Legislature, praying that that body would take *immediate* action to secure a *stringent* truant law, providing truant officers throughout the State."*

The subject is discussed calmly, but forcibly, in the last report of the Superintendent of Schools in Connecticut ;† and again, more

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Arguments for and against the resolution.

* (*See Ohio Educational Monthly for Sept.* 1865, p. 245.) Some very pertinent remarks were made in the discussion which followed. State Commissioner, Hon. E. E. White, " proposed to amend the report of the Committee " by striking out the word 'stringent' and substituting the word 'practicable.' " It struck him that the first legislative step to be taken was to ask the State " to step in only when parents criminally neglect their obligations by allowing " their children to wander about the streets without occupation, and they " become vicious and criminal, and this, he thought, was as far as they could " hope to go at the first step. In correcting such evils, the most stringent " laws were not always the most efficient. If legislation is much in advance " of public sentiment, it fails. He did not believe in legislating *down* to public " sentiment, but he would keep within reach of it. In correcting the great " evils of truancy and absenteeism, they must do as Massachusetts had done— " commence with moderate measures and work up to the proper standard as " fast as possible."

Mr. J. D. Caldwell also spoke very much to the purpose. " It may be " well," he said, " to call attention to this point. Are we not depending too " much upon the power of the law to enforce attendance upon school? We " outsiders are anxious to have this great question settled in the best way ; but " I will point out this memorable fact, that there has been no question upon " which the people of Ohio have been so much exercised as upon the temper- " ance question. We have in consequence enacted a 'stringent law' in reference " to the selling and drinking ardent spirits. The law has been on our Statute- " book from seven to 10 years, and what is the result? It is not enforced at all. " I happen to have been placed in a position to enforce the law. I was made to " represent the people of Hamilton county, and was required by law to swear I " would make due diligence to find out if there were any violations of the law in " this county. Such a scene followed as I never before witnessed. I held the " host of liquor-sellers of this city (Cincinnati) in terror and anxiety for four " weeks. I had the whole of them brought before the Court, and the infernal " traffic was stopped for a whole month. And it can be stopped now any day, " if the people of Ohio wish it. Here is a law for stopping it at once ; and if " public opinion demanded it, the traffic would be stopped. This association, " to accomplish the object it desires in the matter of truancy, should appoint a " Committee to report statistics on the evils of truancy, and thus bring their " calcium light to bear upon this great evil. Who are our law-makers but the " people? And if they are not with you, what is the use of a law? The idea of " getting an enactment on any subject, and then going about our business " satisfied, is ridiculous. You cannot accomplish this thing by law. We have " attempted in our city schools to show up the evils of truancy, and you of the ' State Association should follow the same course." (*Ibid.* pp. 247, 249, 250.)

Opinion of the Superintendent of schools in Connecticut,

† " Common schools are State institutions, organized under State direction, and supported, to a great extent, from the State treasury, or from taxes collected by State authority. The principle which justifies this relation, and the exercise of this authority, is that education is necessary for the good of the State, and for the welfare of society which the State is bound to protect. The schools accomplish the object for which they were organized, mainly by receiving the children of school age and educating them for the responsibilities which are to devolve upon them as citizens of the State and members of society. If children do not attend school, the object is not accomplished. It is a question which has already received the attention of legislative bodies in other States and countries, and which may press itself forcibly upon your honorable body,

passionately and not less forcibly, in the last Report of the School Commissioner of Rhode Island.*

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whether the safety of the State, and the best interests of society do not require that some measures shall be adopted which shall insure the attendance of all of school age not justifiably absent. The services of the older children may be of some value to the parent or employer now, but it is not a wise arrangement, or one just to the child or the State, which robs one of his birthright under a free, intelligent government, or the other of the power, security, and wealth, which educated minds bring." (*Connecticut Report for* 1865, p. 7.)

and of the School Commissioner of Rhode Island.

* " If virtue and knowledge protect property, then property should be taxed sufficiently to secure them. If every child has a right to moral and intellectual education, then every State has the power to secure that right to the child by compulsory laws. No child should be allowed to be deprived of it. With the State popular education is a question of self-defence. There are hundreds of children in the city of Providence and in other parts of the State who are unable to read, who are habitual vagrants from school, educating for the worst and most dangerous forms of vice, utterly neglected, as though this mischievous and rapidly accumulating force was not to enter into our coming account. If the question 'What shall *we* do with *them*?" excite no interest, perhaps that other question 'What will *they* soon do with *us*?" may. There is only one thing we can do with them—educate them. Establish schools for them, and see that they attend them. But this would involve an 'appropriation.' So do criminal courts and jails. The State must support one or the other. It can choose which. In 1819 compulsory laws, requiring every parent to educate every child, were enacted in Prussia. At first there was a violent opposition, and the usual hue-and-cry of 'invaded rights,' but in 12 years crime and pauperism had diminished 40 per cent. Now no person would dare to propose a repeal of these laws. But, cries the timid law-maker, '*We* have no right to legislate in 'this way.' What! a right to cast into a dungeon, but no right to send to school? A right to suspend by the gallows, but no right to teach the Decalogue? A right to disgrace a man for ever, but no right to prepare him for honor, glory, immortality? Do our legislators know that juvenile crime is increasing in a much larger ratio than our population or our wealth? Is it not time that something was enacted to dry up these sources of frightful evil, before the swollen and impetuous stream shall inundate the land?" (*19th Annual Report*, pp. 25-27).

Increase of juvenile crime.

Mr. James F. Gerard, a retired lawyer of New York, who, having more than reached the limit of "threescore years and ten," but retaining all the vigour and freshness of youth, devotes a large portion of his time to visiting the city schools, and whose face must be known to every school-teacher and school-child in New York, and is loved wherever it is known, told me that his decided conviction was that the evil could only be reached by the voluntary, philanthropic action of the religious bodies, carried on in a missionary spirit, and organized on a much more extensive scale than anything which exists at present. "Parochial schools," that is, schools connected with different Christian congregations, do, it is true, already exist in considerable numbers all over the States, and in the hands of the Roman Catholics are often vigorous and well-attended. But they hardly lay hold of the class of children in view; while the Industrial, or as we should perhaps call them, the Ragged Schools of the Children's Aid Society, though useful and well-conducted as far as they go, are not numerous or powerful enough really to arrest the evil. Mr. Gerard's notion was that the children must be partly clothed and fed, as well as taught, for though people sometimes talk as though there were none of our European evils there, there are both poverty and ignorance in America. The only difference is, that in America, in most cases, both are voluntary.

Mr. J. F. Gerard's opinion.

Parochial and industrial schools do not reach the evil.

It is almost superflous to remark that the evil of an uneducated lower class is infinitely more serious in a country where political power, through universal or almost universal suffrage, is in the hands of the masses, than where, as with ourselves, both the structure of the constituencies and the tendency of public opinion support the theory of "progress under the direction of an educated "minority." And even we feel that it is not socially safe to leave in ignorance

Its formidable consequences in America.

I am afraid, however, that there is a great mass of apathy and unconcern which is neither stirred by this rhetoric, nor ready to listen to these arguments, and, for aught that I can see, as in England, so in America, truancy and absenteeism will continue to be the burden of bitterest lamentation to the philanthropist, and the burden of sorest mischief to the schools.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL AT WORK.

But it is time to pass from schools in the abstract, as they are contemplated in the eye of the law, to schools in the concrete, as they present themselves to the eye of an observer. I was instructed to "inform myself of the manner in which the schools "are supported, whether by any fund in the nature of endow- "ment or appropriation by the State or Central Government, or "by local taxation, or by subscription, or by school fees. If "there were any funds appropriated by the State" I was to "ascertain the source from which they are derived, whether "from the sale or allotment of State lands, or from general "taxation, or from any other source, their amount, and the "principle of their distribution among the various local bodies. "If they arose from special or local taxation" I was to learn "the principle and manner of its assessment, and its amount "relatively to the income of the ratepayer, and to the taxa- "tion of the country. And in all cases" I was directed to "ascertain the average cost of the education of a scholar, and "particularly its full cost to the parents." To the department of the subject thus marked out for me I will devote the present section of this Report.

Action of the "General Land Office.'

By the Constitution (Art. iv. s. 3.2), the Congress of the United States has power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the nation. The administration of this property is confided to a bureau, called the "General Land Office," which was established in 1812 as a department of the Treasury, but was transferred in 1859 to the Ministry of the Interior. Out of the

Area over which it ranges.

3,250,000 square miles which constitute the Territorial extent of the Union, the public lands embrace an area of 2,265,625 square miles, or 1,450,000,000 acres, and contain within their circumference 16 sovereignties known as the "Land States," and an extent of territory sufficient for 32 additional States, each equal to

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a class who have no political power. The intensity, therefore, with which Americans think and feel on the matter, can easily be conceived.

View of the Superintendent of Schools at Providence.

"I cannot close," says the Superintendent of the Schools of Providence, "without repeating what I have said in all my former reports, that our schools are suffering more from the evils of truancy than from all other causes combined. Nothing has yet been done effectually to check this prolific source of misery and crime. Could a true picture of the rapid increase of youthful depravity be portrayed in all its appalling colours it could not but startle and astonish every friend to humanity and social order. The seed now being sown will produce in coming years a most terrible harvest. Short-sighted must that policy be, independent of all moral considerations, that hesitates to spend a few hundred dollars in the prevention of crime, rather than incur, with all the risks of life and property the expenditure of thousands in punishing it, and in retrieving the miseries that follow in its train." (*Report for* 1863, p. 27.)

the great central Land State of Ohio.* This immense extent of territory, as it is gradually surveyed, is laid off in townships six miles square, each divided into 36 sections or square miles, of which the 16th is specially appropriated for the support of schools, and is called the "school section." When once land is granted and set off for this purpose, the control of it passes from the hands of the Central Government to those of the particular State within whose boundaries it lies; and the income arising from its management, whether let or sold, constitutes what is called the "Township Fund" in Illinois, and the "Irreducible Fund" in Ohio.† The "School Section."

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* *See National Almanac for* 1863, p. 215.—The "Sixteen Sovereignties" are the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Michigan, Arkansas, Florida, Iowa, Wisconsin, California, Minnesota, Oregon, Kansas.

"The public lands that have belonged, and now belong to the General Government are situated :—

(*a*) Within the limits of the United States as defined by the treaty of 1783, and are embraced by the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota, all of which have been formed out of the North-west Territory, as conveyed with certain reservations to the United States by New York in 1781, by Virginia in 1784, by Massachusetts in 1785, and by Connecticut in 1786; also the lands within the boundaries of the States of Mississippi and Alabama, north of 31° N. lat., as conveyed to the United States by Georgia in 1802:

(*b*) Within the territories of Orleans and Louisiana as acquired from France by the treaty of 1803, including the portion of Mississippi and Alabama south of 31°, the whole of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, Oregon, and the territories, of Colorado, Nebraska, Dakota, and Washington:

(*c*) Within the State of Florida, as obtained from Spain, by the treaty of 1819:

(*d*) In New Mexico, Utah, Nevada and California, as acquired from Mexico by treaty in 1848:

(*e*) The 'Gadsden Purchase' of 23,161,000 acres south of the Gila River, acquired from Mexico in 1854." (*National Almanac, as above.*)

† The case of Ohio, which I take to have been the first State to which this method of endowment was applied, may serve as an illustration of the plan, and of its operation, generally. It is now the law of settlement of all new States. The Irreducible Fund of Ohio.

Ohio was admitted into the Union as a State in 1802, fourteen years after its original settlement. In the same year, Congress, in the Act of Organization, in order to induce the new State to accept a provision for exempting lands sold by the United States from taxation for a period of five years, proposed that "the Section No. 16 in every township, or where such sections had been sold, "granted, or disposed of, other lands equivalent thereto and most contiguous "to the same, should be granted to such township, for the use of schools." The Ohio Convention accepted the proposition, and it was voted that "all lands "appropriated by the United States for the support of schools, should be "vested in the Legislature of the State, in trust, for that purpose." The lands have been either sold or let; and the proceeds of sales, amounting to a capital sum of $2,879,379 is held in trust by the State, the Treasury paying an annual interest of six per cent. The income of the property from all sources for the year ended September 1st, 1864, was $218,637. The income, however, is not distributed by a uniform rule. Certain portions of the State, which were settled under special terms—the Virginia Military District, the United States Military District, on which the soldiers of the Revolutionary War were pensioned, and the Connecticut Western Reserve—receive their share according to the whole number of youth therein, while in the remainder of the State, the rent of section 16, or the interest arising from the proceeds of its sale, is paid exclusively

The United States Deposit Fund.

In the year 1836, the Government of the United States found itself in a predicament unusual to Governments—in possession of large accumulations and surplus revenue, which had become rather embarrassing. It was resolved to apportion the amount, *pro ratâ*, among the States then constituting the Union, with leave to employ the annually accruing income in such ways as they might deem most expedient for their own local interests, subject only to the possibility, in event of any national emergency, of being recalled. It has not, however, been recalled, even under the pressure of the civil war; and though it is still treated as a loan, nobody seems to think that the time will ever arrive when it will be reclaimed. In many of the States the annual income of the fund, which is generally known as the "United States Deposit Fund," is applied to the support of schools; in others, where no such item appears in the school accounts, it is devoted, I presume, to other local objects.*

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to the inhabitants of the originally surveyed townships. This leads to inconvenience, as well as to great inequalities of benefit. One township may receive a larger sum, its section of land having been fortunately situated, or judiciously sold; while an adjacent township receives a mere pittance. In Indiana an attempt was recently made to redress this state of things by consolidating the township funds, and distributing their income equally throughout the State; but the Supreme Court of the State decided that such a measure would be a violation of trust, and it was therefore abandoned.

Estimate of its average value to a township.

It may be worth while to attempt to estimate the value of this donation of Congress. A section of a township is a square mile, or 640 acres. The area of Ohio is estimated at 39,964 square miles; one-thirty-sixth part of this gives 710,470 acres. It would, of course, when given, be uncleared ground, such as the Government are in the habit of selling at $1.25 per acre. The donation, then, of section 16 would be equivalent to a donation to each township, on the average, of a capital sum of $800 as an endowment for its schools; and this, at 6 per cent. interest, would produce $48 a year. It appears, however, from the returns that the land must have sold at a higher rate per acre than $1.25; for the income of the "Irreducible Fund" for 1863-4 is set down at $218,637, which, divided among the 1,351 townships of the State, would give an average of rather more than $160 to each. It is probable, therefore, that the average value of the land would be $3.50 or $4.00 an acre, unless there have been accumulations of capital.

In the untimbered prairie lands of Illinois, where the cost of clearing would be very small, the value of the section would be considerably more. The Illinois Central Railway Company are now offering for sale about a million acres of land, adjacent to their line of road, in farms of 40 acres and upwards, at prices depending on situation, but varying from $9 to $15 an acre. The capital value of the "Township Fund" of Illinois is put down at $3,515,118.

Commissioner White's opinion of its benefits.

Mr. White, the State Commissioner of Schools in Ohio, doubts whether the land endowment, as it has been used, has been productive of any real benefit to the schools. There would, he thinks, have been no difficulty in raising the required sum without it. It might have been made very useful, if it had been reserved for the support of high schools, which are much needed, but the value of which is not adequately appreciated by the people. There are whole counties in Ohio without a single high school within their limits.

Application of the United States Deposit Fund,

* In Connecticut the whole income of the fund under the name of the "Townships Deposit Fund" is applied to schools; and similarly in Rhode Island. In New York $165,000 of the income is annually appropriated to the same object. In Massachusetts, unless it is included indiscriminately under the head of "State School Fund," I cannot discover that any of the school income comes from this source.

in New York,

The amount of the Fund is considerable. In New York its capital sum is $4,014,520, producing a revenue of about $260,000, of which $165,000 are

The only other general donation of the Central Government to educational purposes, so far as I am aware, is contained in what is commonly known as the "Agricultural College Act." By an Act of Congress dated 2nd July 1862, there was granted to the several States, which might choose to accept the terms, an amount of public land in quantity equal to 30,000 acres for each senator and representative in Congress to which such States are respectively entitled under the Census of 1860, for the purpose of endowing, supporting, and maintaining at least one college in each State, "where the leading object shall be, without excluding other "scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to "teach such branches of learning as are related to agricultural "and the mechanic arts, in such manner as the Legislatures of the "States may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal "and practical education of the industrial classes in the several "pursuits and professions of life."

Agricultural College Act.

Its object.

The endowment is liberal, and the utility of the object cannot be questioned. Up to the end of September 1863, 15 States had accepted grants, and expressed their willingness to comply with the terms; others have declared their acceptance subsequently, and the amount of public land already assigned is nearly 5,000,000 of acres. The disturbed condition of the country since the date of the Act has prevented any steps from being actually taken to constitute and organize such colleges, but the subject has been widely discussed, and in the Ohio State Commissioner's Report for 1865 the course of study and instruction to be pursued in such an institution, and the best plan of organizing it, are propounded in some detail. The quantity of land allotted to the State of Ohio is 630,000 acres; and it is estimated that "with proper care in the "location of the lands and in the sale of the scrip, the State ought "to realize at least $630,000, or one dollar per acre. This sum "vested in six per cent. United States Stocks, or in the State "Stocks, would yield an annual income of over $37,000, one-half "of which, according to the plan proposed, would endow an

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annually credited to the School Fund, upon which the salaries of the School Commissioners (112 at $500 = $56,000), and the apportionment for libraries ($55,000), constitute a first charge.

In Illinois the amount is $335,592, of which the income would be nearly $20,000.

In Connecticut, the fund is $763,660, producing an income of $45,000. In this State the fund was deposited with the several townships according to population as ascertained by the census of 1830. It is to be invested at six per cent. interest, and both fund and income are to be exempt from any charge of expense of management. The legal requirement that the Fund should be loaned at six per cent. was made in 1859, in consequence of its being discovered that some townships had directed the agent of the fund to loan it to the selectmen at a nominal rate of interest, in some instances as low as one per cent., thus virtually depriving the common schools of the larger part of their legitimate income. (See *Connecticut Report*, for 1864, p. 50). The use of the "U. S. Deposit "Fund" in the States may be compared with the use made of the "Clergy "Reserve Fund" by the townships of Upper Canada.

in Connecticut.

" experimental school; the other half would endow the scientific " and agricultural professorships."*

It is expressly, and perhaps wisely—considering the tendency of Americans in these things—provided in the Act that " no por- " tion of the fund, nor the interest thereon shall be applied " directly or indirectly, under any pretence whatever, to the pur- " chase, erection, preservation, or repair, of any building or " buildings."

State School Fund.

Every State which I visited, and I believe every State in the Union in which the system of Common Schools is organized, possesses a School Fund arising from various sources,—sale of lands, direct or indirect taxation, fines, penalties, escheats and forfeitures,—vested either in the State Legislature, in a Board of Education, or in an officer or officers specially appointed for the purpose, the income of which is annually distributed, with very curious differences of administration, for the promotion of education, chiefly, but not exclusively, through the instrumentality of the public schools.* The differences of administration which I have noticed—

The grant under the Act takes two forms.

* *Ohio 11th Report*, pp. 51–58. States in which there remains a sufficient quantity of unsold public land, receive the grant in land within their own territory. Other States, in which there is not the quantity of public land subject to sale, take land scrip to the amount in acres for the deficiency of their distributive share, which scrip they are entitled to sell, but not to locate. The purchaser, however, has the power of locating it upon any of the unappropriated lands of the United States, subject to sale at $1.25 per acre. All mineral lands are excepted from the grant.

Amount allotted to several States.

The States which have accepted are: (*a*) in land; Iowa, 240,000 acres; Kansas, 90,000; Michigan, 240,000; Minnesota, 120,000; Wisconsin, 240,000; (*b*) in land scrip: Rhode Island, 120,000 acres; Illinois, 480,000; Kentucky, 330,000; Vermont, 150,000; New York, 990,000; Pennsylvania, 780,000; New Jersey, 210,000; Massachusetts, 360,000; New Hampshire, 150,000; Connecticut, 180,000; Ohio, 630,000 (*See National Almanac for* 1864, p. 254).

* A long note will be necessary here. I will describe, sufficiently to illustrate the statement in the text, the School Funds of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Ohio and Illinois; (*a*) as to their sources and origin; (*b*) as to their amount; (*c*) as to the principles that govern their administration.

ASSACHUSETTS. State School Fund.

I. The Act establishing the Massachusetts School Fund was passed in 1834. The capital was derived from the sale of lands in the State of Maine, and from some claims of Massachusetts on the Government of the United States for military service. In 1854 the State Treasurer was directed to transfer to the Fund such a number of shares of the stock of the Western Railroad as would, at the rate of $100 a share, increase the capital to a million and a half of dollars. By a law of 1859, the Fund is to be further increased by the proceeds of sales of land in the Back Bay. Its ultimate amount is fixed at $2,000,000.

Its origin.

Its amount.

The capital of the Fund in 1864 was $1,181,627, and the accruing interest for the year was $111,124. Of this amount, one moiety was applied to various educational purposes; viz. $18,000 to the four State Normal Schools; $4,800 for 48 State Scholarships of $100 each for the purpose of training masters for the High Schools in the State; $3000 for Teachers' Institutes; about $500 to Indian Schools; and about $22,000 for other miscellaneous objects, leaving a surplus of $10,538, which was added to the principal.

Its application.

The other moiety, $55,562, was applied to the support of the Common Schools of the State, yielding to each child between the ages of five and 15 in the townships, the sum of 23 cents 4 mills—not quite a quarter of a dollar, or not a 25th part of the whole average cost of such child's education. The Fund is apportioned by the Secretary and Treasurer of the Commonwealth to

and hardly any two States administer their Fund exactly on the same priciples—have arisen, I imagine, from the desire of those

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the School Committees of the several townships, according to the number of children between five and 15 years of age in each, on condition that the said township raises by local taxes $1.50 per child to meet it. Schools are required by law to be kept by properly qualified teachers, and to be open for six months in the year; but these are not conditions of a township's receiving its share of the grant. The School Committee distribute the money among the several schools of the township at their discretion, uncontrolled by any vote of the inhabitants. Twenty-five per cent. of the sum received may be expended on the purchase of books and apparatus; the remainder is to be applied to the direct support of the schools, that is, to the payment of teachers' wages, supply of fuel, and care of school-rooms. At one time, though it was called a School Fund, townships were not required to apply what they received to educational purposes, though in fact most townships did so. But the law has become more imperative on this point. Yet even in 1861, Mr. Secretary Boutwell says that some townships were making an illegal use of the money, by spending it to defray the cost of building and repairing school-houses, which ought to be provided out of local assessment (24th *Report*, p. 79). With the view of correcting a laxity of practice in other directions which has crept into many townships, Mr. Secretary White now proposes to make the conditions of receiving the State money more severe; viz., (*a*) that the amount raised by the township be not less than $3 per child; (*b*) that a sufficient number of schools be kept for at least six months in the year at the expense of the township; and (*c*) that the provision requiring a High School to be maintained, where the population is of given dimensions, be complied with (28*th Report*, 1865, p. 96).

Its conditions.

Fresh terms proposed.

II. The School Fund of Connecticut originated in the sale of public lands belonging to the State, but situated in that part of Ohio known as the Western Reserve. The lands were sold in 1795 for $1,200,000, and out of the proceeds was constituted a fund, the annual income of which was appropriated to the support and encouragement of Common Schools throughout the State. The capital value of this fund in 1864 was $2,049,426, invested in bonds, mortgages, bank stock, and cultivated land, and produced an income of $132,589, or $1.20 per child,—five times the distributive share in Massachusetts. Since 1810 the Fund has been under the direction of a Special Commissioner, with whose advice it is annually apportioned by the Comptroller of the State among the townships in proportion to the number of persons resident in them between four and 16 years of age, and subdivided on the same principle, herein differing from the Massachusetts rule, among the districts that have kept schools according to law in the preceding year, *i. e.*, for six months, in a satisfactory building, under a qualified teacher. If any district receives less than $35, the deficiency must be made up to it from the township local tax, or the "township deposit fund." (*See above*, p. 45, note.) The money so apportioned is applicable to the payment of teachers' salaries only.

CONNECTICUT.

Origin of fund.

Its amount.

Its distribution.

III. The capital of the New York State School Fund, which was established in 1805, amounts to $2,734,313, and consists of Bank and State Stocks, Comptroller's Bonds, and money in the Treasury uninvested. It increases by the sale of lands, &c., at the rate of $30,000 or $40,000 a year. In 1806 it only amounted to $183,162; in 1845 it had grown to $2,090,630. Its income in 1864 was $154,882, to which was added $165,000 from the United States Deposit und, and $1,125,749 from the State School Tax of ¾ a mill on the dollar of the capital value of all real and personal property in the State, the general State tax for other purposes being 4½ mills on the dollar.

NEW YORK.

Nature and amount of fund.

It deserves to be noticed that direct taxes in America (with the exception of the newly imposed income tax) appear universally to be laid on capital, which is usually assessed at perhaps a fourth below its actual value.

The administration of this Fund is vested in the Superintendent of Public Instruction primarily, and secondly in the School Commissioners of the several Assembly Districts. After laying aside $56,000 for the salaries of 112 School commissioners, at $500 a piece, and $55,000 for library money, to be divided among the districts according to the number of persons in each between five

Its administration.

who have the disposition of the Fund, to make the stimulus thus provided in the shape of a pecuniary subsidy, bear as directly and

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and 21 years of age, and $2,000 for a contingent fund, the balance is divided by the Superintendent into two unequal parts, in the ratio of one-third to two-thirds. The one-third, called the "district quota," is divided among the districts which have kept their school open for twenty-eight weeks of five days each, and who have sent in reports according to law, at the rate of one quota for each qualified teacher who has taught in the schools for the said required term.

The "district quota."

The two-thirds, called the "pupil quota," with the library fund, is divided among the counties according to population.

The "pupil quota."

The next step in the distribution is taken by the School Commissioners, be they one or more, of the county. Taking this "pupil quota," which is two-thirds of the whole sum, they divide it into two equal parts; one moiety, which will be one-third of the whole original amount, among the school districts, according to the number of children in each between the ages of four and 21; the other moiety according to the average daily attendance in the schools; half, that is, according to the presumable need of the district, as tested by its school population, and half according to the effort it has itself made to supply that need, as tested by the attendance of the children in the schools.

Two-fold distribution of this.

In 1864 the amount distributed as "district quota" was $439,249; and the amount divided as "pupil quota" was $893,607. New York city pays under the $\frac{3}{4}$ mill State-tax, nearly twice as much as she receives back. Her payment in 1864 was $432,000; her receipt only $260,896.

The apportionment of one-half of the "pupil quota" on the basis of average daily attendance is a new provision of law, which will not come into operation till this year (1866), and is expected materially to improve the attendance at the schools. Up to this time the whole of the "pupil quota" was distributed on one principle, according to the number of children of school-age in the district.

New provision of law.

OHIO.

IV. The Ohio School Fund,—not including the "Irreducible Fund" arising from the sale or letting of "Section Sixteen," which belongs to the several townships (*see above* p. 59, note 8)—is the product of a tax of $1\frac{3}{10}$ mill levied on each dollar of the capital value of all real and personal estate, together with certain fines and escheats, some of them, unless obsolete, of a sufficiently curious character. Among them, is one of 25 cents. to one dollar for each offence, "If any person of the age of 14 years or upwards shall profanely "curse or damn, or profanely swear by the name of God, Jesus Christ, or the "Holy Ghost." I am sorry to say, that if this fine were strictly inflicted just now in America, an enormous income might be raised, for the habit of profane swearing, and especially by the second of these holy Names, is awfully prevalent. This particular fine, however, is payable to "the Township Treasurers for the "use of Schools," and not to the State School Fund (See *Ohio School Laws*, p. 61). The tax produced in 1864 an income of $1,217,460.

The Fund is administered by the State Auditor, and distributed to each *county* according to the number of children between five and 21 in the same; and then subdivided, on the same principle, among the several "sub-districts." In view of 2,040 sub-districts (out of about 12,000) which in 1864, kept their schools open for a period short of 24 weeks, the School Commissioner recommends that the distribution of the State Fund to any district be made to depend upon the said districts having raised during the previous year sufficient funds to sustain, with the aid of its share of the State Fund, good schools in the several sub-districts for at least 24 weeks, which is the Illinois law; and further, that in case the smaller sub-districts are deprived by the action of the school authorities of the township of a legal and equitable share of the funds arising of such local taxation, that authority be given to effect a redistribution of such funds (11*th Report*, p. 17).

At present, the distribution of the State School Fund appears to be unconditional, or, at least, the only condition is that the district shall have returned the required enumeration of its inhabitants within the school age.

ILLINOIS.

Source of the School Fund.

V. In Illinois, the School Fund consists of a capital sum produced by 3 per cent. of the proceeds of the sale of public lands "donated" by Congress to the

as effectively as possible on the schools. The Massachusetts method is the simplest; the New York method, or that of Illinois, the most complicated; the Connecticut conditions, perhaps, the most stringent; but in none of the States does the end aimed at—the efficiency of the schools—appear to be completely attained. It is indeed evident, though we in England only discovered the fact after a formal inquiry, that the population of a township, or its acreage, or the amount of its taxable property, or the length of time during which the schools are kept open, or the certificates of the teachers, or the number of children within the school age, or the average number of scholars in attendance, each and all of which separately or in combination are made conditions in one State or another of receiving the State's bounty, are none of them adequate guarantees that the schools in a township are in the condition in which they ought to be, or are producing the results which they ought to produce. *Our* principle of "payment for results," combined with payment on average attendance, certain necessary conditions for the well-being of the school being also pre-supposed, the results in question being obtained by the process of direct individualized examination, conducted by a competent and perfectly independent inspector, has not yet been tried in America. Being asked to make an address to the Ohio State School Teachers' Association at Cincinnati, I took for my subject the English School system, particularly those parts of it that admitted of being brought into most direct comparison with their

Differences of administration.

Object incompletely attained.

Comparison of English and American methods.

State, and is cumulative as fast as the lands are sold. One-sixth of the amount is set apart as a College Fund. In 1863 the two amounts were $613,362 and $156,613 respectively. There is also an annual income produced by a tax of two mills on the dollar of all real and personal property, which realized in 1863, $293,317. Such is the statement of the National Almanac. But I do not understand how a tax of $1\frac{3}{10}$ mill on the dollar should produce in Ohio $1,217,460, and a tax of two mills on the dollar produce in Illinois—with 15000 more square miles of area—only $293,117, unless the basis of assessment in the two States is widely different. It is true that Ohio has an excess of more than 600,000 in population, but this is not sufficient to account for the difference. I have nothing, in this case, to check the almanac's figures by, and its account is somewhat obscure; and either it may be misstated, or I may have misunderstood it (See *National Almanac for* 1864, p. 327.)

The apportionment of the income is rather complicated. It, together with the income of the "Surplus Revenue" another name for the "United States' Deposit Fund" is first apportioned annually by the Public Auditor of the State to the School Commissioner of each county, one-third according to the number of townships or parts of townships, and two-thirds in proportion to the number of *white* children under 21, in each county. The Commissioner then, taking the fund in hand, divides it among the treasurers of the several townships, on the basis of one-third in proportion to acreage, and two-thirds according to the number of white children in each. And, finally, the School Trustees of the township apportion it among the districts, half according to the number of white children in each under 21, the remainder in proportion to average attendance. The only condition is that the school, which must be free, shall have been kept open for six months, under a properly qualified teacher. There is a special provision for coloured children. "In townships, where shall be persons of colour, "the Trustees shall allow such persons a portion of the School Fund equal to "the amount of taxes collected for school purposes from such persons in their "respective townships" (*School Laws of Illinois*, p. 80).

Its apportionment.

own. The two features of the system which seemed to strike my audience most forcibly and most favourably, both for their novelty and for their evident utility, were, first, our course of nine years' training of teachers—five years as pupil-teachers, two years at the Normal school, and two years under probation; and, second, our method of inspection and our practice of "payment for results," especially that part of the practice which so frequently obtains among us, of allowing the teacher a certain fixed proportion of the sum which has been earned for the school by his ability and diligence. The amount of the State's aid even when it is largest, as in Connecticut or Ohio, measured by dollars is not, it is true, very considerable, at least not in proportion to the total cost of each child's education, but I am convinced that a thorough system of independent inspection, and a thorough system of individual examination, particularly in the rural districts which most require looking up, and where evasions of the law seem to be most frequent, would very largely increase its beneficial influence upon the schools. And so many Americans themselves feel.*

Sources of Local Support.

But a school's main reliance upon support, even in Connecticut, where the State Fund is so disproportionately large and the income from that source consequently so considerable, is upon funds either raised in or belonging to the township or district in which it lies.† At least such would be the case with all efficient schools. There probably are in all the States except Massachusetts,—where the State subsidy is so low, and is required to be met by six times its amount raised by local taxation, and rate-bills do not exist, and township endowments are rare,—schools pretty much of the type of our old rural "dame's schools," which are maintained not in efficiency but in nominal life, for a greater or smaller portion of the year,—from three to four months—without raising a dollar by local taxation."‡

Schools sometimes maintained without local taxes.

Opinion of Ohio School Commissioner.

* "How marked would be the change," says the Hon. E. E. White, of Ohio, "if a school inspector, possessing eminent qualifications for the work, "and clothed with requisite authority, should enter each of those forlorn "school-rooms, test the value and thoroughness of the instruction imparted, "the discipline, the classification of the pupils, and all the other elements of "an efficient school. Still more fruitful would be the inspector's labours, if "he should also be made the instructor and guide of these teachers, aiding "them in mapping out a rational order of school work, and instructing them "in truer methods of teaching and discipline—in short, setting up for them a "higher and truer standard of work, and inspiring all engaged therein with an "earnest, progressive spirit. His influence and labours should also be directed "to the elevation of public sentiment in each sub-district, the awakening of a "deeper interest in education, and a more cordial co-operation on the part of "the patrons of the school. Who doubts that such an agency reaching effi-"ciently every school district in the State would wonderfully enhance the "efficiency and value of our schools? The returns of every dollar therein "expended would be increased more than twofold" (*Ohio Eleventh Report*, 1865, p. 35).

No State tax for schools in New England.

† In the New England States there is no general tax levied annually by the State for the support of schools, as there is in New York, and in the Western States. As already noticed, there is less centralization.

‡ I again quote from Mr. White, of Ohio. "Our school law provides that "the Board of Education of each township, city, or village shall make the

In some States—as in Ohio and New York—for what reason I do not exactly know—possibly to remove prejudices against the principle of assessments for education, or to prevent weak districts being overborne by the arbitrary will of the majority, limits are placed by law to the local sentiment of liberality. In New York the cost of a school-house must not exceed $800, unless approved by the School Commissioner; apparatus must not cost in any one year more than $25, nor books for the district library more than $10, nor must contingent expenses run up to a higher figure than $25.* Limitations to local taxation.

In Ohio, in cities having a population over 100,000, the tax raised for school purposes must not exceed two mills on the dollar of the capital value of all taxable property; where the population is between 40,000 and 100,000 it must not exceed three mills; and in cities with a population of less than 40,000 it must not exceed four mills on the dollar. In other districts it must not exceed two mills on the dollar "for any school purpose other than the "payment of teachers," nor a further two mills on the dollar "for "the exclusive purpose of sustaining teachers in the central or "high schools, or to prolong, after the State Funds have been "exhausted, the terms of the several sub-district or primary "schools in the township.† Limitations fixed by law in Ohio.

"necessary provision for continuing the schools in their respective townships "or special school districts for at least six months in each year. It will be "noticed that during the last five years the schools of the state have been kept "in session *on an average*, but *four* days more than the time required; and "yet the schools in most of the special districts (i.e. the cities and towns), have "been taught from eight to 10 months in each year. These facts led me to "suspect that many schools in the State were in session considerably less than "the time required by statute. An inquiry in this direction in a few counties "revealed the fact that *in several townships no local tax whatever is assessed for "tuition purposes*; that the schools are continued till the State funds are "exhausted, and then closed. Feeling it to be my duty to ascertain the extent "of this disregard of a positive requirement of the statute, the equity of which "has never been questioned, I called upon the school clerks to give in their "annual returns a statement of the number of schools, if any, kept in session "less than 24 weeks in the year. The number of schools reported is 2040, or "nearly 20 per cent. of all the sub-district schools in the State. Picture of state of things in Ohio. No local tax sometimes raised.

"In many instances, these schools are situated in sub-districts, that con- "tain comparatively a small number of pupils, and which *by an unjust and "illegal distribution of the school funds arising from local taxation, by township "boards of education*, do not receive sufficient funds to sustain a good school "six months. If authority were given to order a re-apportionment of funds on "evidence of such unjust action by township boards, the evil would soon be "remedied. It is now a very serious one. Cases of unjust distribution.

"The returns also reveal the humiliating fact that there were 618 townships "and special districts in the State, in each of which the schools were in session, "on an average, less than 24 weeks, 120 days, during the year. But this is "not all; 340 townships sustained their schools less than 20 weeks; 203 less "than 16 weeks; and 45 less than 12 weeks! (*Ohio Eleventh Report*, 1865, p. 15.) Short school sessions.

* Limitations of a like kind are introduced in the school laws, both of Upper and Lower Canada; in both cases, I believe, to overcome objections to taxation, by restraining it within certain bounds. Limitations in Canada.

† *Ohio School Law of March* 25, 1861. The School Commissioner has a strong opinion that these limitations are unwise. "It is impossible," he says, "by legislative limitation to affect the local school levies in the State at large Mr. White thinks limitations unwise.

Local taxation higher in the Eastern than in the Western States.

The sum required to be raised by local taxation is considerably diminished in the Western States, as compared, at least, with Massachusetts, by the much larger amount of the State School Fund, and by the large local endowment arising from the sale or rent of "School-section Sixteen;" and in the State of New York by the extent to which, in the rural districts, recourse is had to the system of school fees.* Yet, apparently, the greater wealth of Massachusetts, relatively to its population, brings things nearly, if not quite, to a level again. The population of Massachusetts, at the census of 1860, was 1,231,022—more than a million below the population of Ohio, nearly two and three-quarter millions below the population of New York. Its property valuation, as given in the last returns, is $897,795,326, upon which was levied in 1864 a tax to the amount of $1,536,314, giving an average for the State of one and three-quarter mills on the dollar.

Incidence of taxation upon property in Massachusetts.

On page 23 a Table is exhibited, showing the township appropriations of Massachusetts in 1864 for the education of each child in the township between the ages of five and 15. That table taken alone would lead to very erroneous conclusions as to the actual incidence upon property of the cost of the schools. In almost every case, as a fact, and as a natural consequence, where the appropriation is largest in its rate per child it is smallest in its rate per dollar. I quoted just now an expression from the Ohio Commissioner, in which he spoke of districts "poor in property, "but rich in children." The townships that stand highest in the Table of page 23 are those, on the contrary, which are poor in children but rich in property. Taking Massachusetts by counties, the one in which the highest rate was levied was Barnstable, where the tax was 2.78 mills on the dollar; the lowest was Suffolk, in which the Boston schools lie, where it was only 1.21 mills on the dollar. In the city of Boston itself, the tax was only 1.02 mill; and Boston stands 324th on the list of the 333 townships which

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"without destroying the schools in those districts that are comparatively poor "in property, and rich in children" (*Eleventh Report*, p. 13). It appears that "the average rate of school tax voluntarily imposed by the cities, towns, "and villages of the State for 1863–4 was 2.62 mills on the dollar; in the "rural townships only 1.24 mills. For 1864–5, the average rate in the cities, "towns, and villages was 3.62 mills; in the rural townships, 1.40 mills" (*Ibid.* p. 14).

Figures in Ohio, New York, and Connecticut.

* In Ohio, in 1864, the State tax was $1,217,460; the "Irreducible Fund" produced $218,637; the local tax amounted to $1,221,033 (*Eleventh Report*, p. 6). In New York, the amount raised by taxes in rural districts in 1864 was $674,599; by rate-bills, *i.e.* by school fees, $429,892. In Connecticut, where all the sources from which money can be got are used, the returns for 1864 were as follows: from school fund proper, $134,311; from township deposit fund, $45,000; from township school tax, $87,700; from district tax, noticed as being unprecedentedly large, $140,144; from school fees, $31,422; and from miscellaneous local funds, $13,786. It appears that the two cities of Hartford and New Haven raised upwards of $54,000 of the district tax—more than one-third of the whole—chiefly to provide themselves with new or improved school buildings; and that out of the 1609 districts in the State, only 181 raised money by district tax over and above the proceeds of the township tax. In 305 districts, not quite a fifth of the whole, tuition fees were charged.

compose the State, in the "percentage of valuation" appropriated to its public schools.*

Land Endowments in Chicago and St. Louis.

In some of the large cities of the West—for instance, in Chicago and St. Louis—a considerable proportion of the local funds arises from endowments. In Chicago particularly, School-section Sixteen fell almost in what is now the centre of that wonderfully developed city; and though I was informed it had not been made the most of, and much of it is admitted by the school authorities to be "leased on very low rents," yet even now the proceeds from this source are nearly one-fourth of the whole annual cost of the schools, and when the present leases expire, and the land can either be sold or re-let on more advantageous terms, it is not at all improbable, considering its situation, that its yearly income will be sufficient or almost sufficient to sustain the whole burthen of the schools.

Rates of school-tax to whole amount of local taxation.

As a general rule, in the Eastern townships, where schools are maintained in thorough efficiency, I was informed that in normal pacific times the ratio of the tax allotted to the schools to the whole sum raised for local purposes was about one-third. Just now, owing to the pressure of the war, the amount, though absolutely higher than it has ever yet been in most places, is relatively less; and it would generally be less in cities, owing to the greater variety of municipal purposes to which money is applied, than in rural districts which have few public objects beyond the school.

Appropriations of Massachusetts townships.

* In 1864, in Massachusetts, on the one dollar of valuation,
8 townships raised three mills, but less than four;
115 townships raised two mills, but less than three;
202 townships raised one mill, but less than two;
8 townships raised less than one mill;
Total, 333.

The sum raised by taxation for school purposes in Boston for the year 1864 was $379,815. The valuation of the city in May 1864 was $332,449,900. The appropriation on this valuation for 1865 was $485,000, or at the rate of 1.45 mills on the dollar.

It should be added that these appropriations do not include in any case money expended on buildings. They only represent the cost of the actual maintenance of the schools.

Chicago school fund.

† The capital value of the School Fund of the city of Chicago, real estate or money loaned, is estimated at $1,028,440. The income of this for the year ended at Dec. 31, 1863, was only $25,177. At the ordinary American rate of six per cent. it should have been more than $60,000. The other sources of the schools' income were (*a*) the State appropriation of $16,414; and (*b*) the two mill city tax, $85,334; giving a total income of $126,925. The total cost of the schools for the same period (not including six per cent. charged on capital sunk in lots and buildings), was $112,709 (*See Chicago, Tenth Report*, pp. 49, 50).

St. Louis.

The St. Louis Report for 1864 states that "By an Act of Congress of 1812, "certain pieces and parcels of land in the city were granted to the State for "the support of schools, provided the quantity did not exceed one-twentieth "of the area of the town." Various tracts of land have been assigned from time to time under the authority of this Act, and the quota contemplated by law has now been filled. Its estimated capital value is $1,855,568, and the revenue for the year ended Aug. 1, 1864 was $35,345, again a very poor return These means are at present applied to the sole purpose of buying new sites, and erecting school-houses, and though practically sufficient for this object, yet no surplus is expected from this source "for a long time to come." (p. 7.)

The ordinary annual amount of taxation for the city of New York, on an estimated capital value of $600,000,000, is $10,000,000. For this year, as a result of war expenditure, it is exceptionally high—$18,000,000; of which the appropriation for schools will be about $2,000,000; or one-fifth of the normal, one-ninth of the actual sum.

In Boston, upon a capital value of $332,450,000, the total income raised for all purposes by taxation, is nearly $4,100,000, of which $485,000, rather more than one-eighth, is the appropriation to schools for the current year.

These rates reduced to the English scale.

It is the habit, as already noticed, in the United States, to levy taxes not, as with us, upon income or rental, but upon the capital value both of real and personal estate. As the rate of interest is ordinarily computed there at six per cent., it is not difficult to reduce the above figures to our scale; and it must be confessed that the results are rather astonishing. The annual returns at six per cent. interest on a capital valued at $600,000,000, which is the valuation of the city of New York, are $36,000,000, on which the taxation this year is $18,000,000, or 50 per cent., the school tax being one-ninth of this amount, or about five and a half per cent. In Boston the income of a capital valued at $332,450,000 at six per cent. would be nearly $20,000,000, on which the taxation is $4,100,000, or 20 per cent. including the amount appropriated to schools, which is $485,000 or about two and a half per cent.*

These sums are not more than, nor in many cases so much as, many a clergyman among ourselves has to pay out of his income for the support of his village school, without any direct personal benefit accruing to himself or his family, while the American taxpayer, in return for his heavy impost, gets, or at any rate, can

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Taxation in New York city.

* I was given to understand that property in New York is not assessed at more than three-fourths its value, which will, of course, diminish the significance of these figures. Great dissatisfaction, moreover, is felt in the community at the way in which the public money is spent by the municipal authorities, who, whether justly or unjustly, do not enjoy the good opinion of their fellow-citizens. The Mayor and Comptroller had been summoned by the Governor of the State, just before I left the country, to answer to certain alleged charges of malversation; and the language in which the press ventures to speak of the civic authorities is unmitigated, and the reverse of complimentary.

In Boston.

But even in Boston, where municipal matters are allowed to be well managed, though certainly, as it struck me, on an expensive scale, a resident gentleman told me that, what with National taxes, and State taxes, and City taxes, a man with a fixed capital bringing in six per cent. has to pay away nearly half his income.

In New York State.

Taking the wider area of a whole State, I find that, in New York, on an aggregate capital value of $1,500,999,877, there was raised by taxation in the townships, counties, and state, $39,873,945, at the average rate of 2.66 cents on the dollar. Of which there was spent on schools the State tax at three-quarters of a mill per dollar, $1,125,749 + $2,668,079, raised by taxes in cities and townships = Total, $3,793,828, nearly one-tenth of the whole.

In Ohio.

In Ohio, in 1863, there was raised by taxation an aggregate sum of $10,135,285; of which there was spent on schools, $2,176,233, rather more than one-fifth of the whole.

To the New York expenditure will have to be added the rate-bill, levied exclusively in rural districts, and amounting to $429,892; and in Ohio, the income from the "Irreducible Fund," equal to about $220,000.

get a free education for his children: but viewed as a burden pressing equally on the property of a whole community, I conceive that they are quite unparalleled. That they are borne so generally without complaint, and indeed that the amount appropriated to the public schools keeps growing so considerably year by year,* is a proof, if proof were wanting, of the value the Americans attach to their system of education, and of their determination that it shall be efficiently maintained.

Average cost per child.

The average cost of this education per scholar is a matter that could be easily ascertained, if the statistics which accompany the Reports in such profusion were as accurate as they are elaborate, and were all calculated on the same basis. But it is admitted on all hands that it is next to impossible to obtain exact returns from the officers in charge of that department of the schools, and the bases of calculation in the different States and cities are so various as to any render any tabulation of results for the purposes of comparison in the highest degree untrustworthy and precarious. Averages, again, always more or less fallacious, are particularly so when the extremes are so wide apart as they are in the townships of Massachusetts, one of which, as already seen, spends on the average more than $18 per child, while four others spend less than two. "Its full cost to the parents," which I was particularly charged to estimate, cannot be estimated at all, because the cost, being defrayed by taxation, is proportional to the property of the parent, and not to the number of children he sends to school.†

Difficult to ascertain.

Increase of annual expenditure.

* The expenditure on the New York city schools has been as follows: In 1855, $917,853; in 1860, $1,122,667; in 1865, $2,000,000. It has more than doubled in 10 years. It is true that there has probably been a proportionate increase both in population, and in the value of property.

In Boston the expense has been: in 1823, $51,839; in 1833, $67,173; in 1843, $135,151; in 1853, $250,664; in 1863, $465,411 (*See New York, Report for* 1864, p. 8; *Boston Report for* 1864, p. 10).

Rate bill schools.

† In New York city, the schools are free in the most absolute sense. The very books used by the children are supplied from the depository of the Board of Education. In Boston, and most other cities, books are charged to the children at cost price, except in the case of indigent children, to whom the charge is remitted. In High Schools, I ascertained that this item of expense averages five dollars a year. Where rate-bills are charged, they are in all cases (I believe) under limits; and I think none are allowed to exceed $6 a year. In Cincinnati, the children of non-resident parents are admitted to the district or primary schools at a fee of $16 per annum, and to the intermediate or grammar schools at $20, payable in advance; such sums, I presume, being conceived to be the average cost of their education (*Cincinnati, 28th Report*, p. 100). In one of the counties of New York State, it is said that there are parents too poor to pay the rate-bill, and at the same time too proud to own it; and that, to conceal their poverty, they keep their children away from school.

Difficulty in substituting taxation for rate-bills.

It is very difficult, from the Reports of the School Commissioners, to strike the balance of feeling in the State at large for or against rate-bills. The State Superintendent is strongly opposed to them; but in many neighbourhoods we are told there is as strong a feeling in their favour. Even when public feeling is turning against them there is a difficulty in substituting taxation, and making the schools free, because those who *have* educated their children by rate-bills don't like now to contribute taxes for the free education of the children of their neighbours. The feeling may betoken a want of public spirit, but it is no more than natural.

I have, however, thrown together in the following Table some figures illustrating this part of the subject; and though I will not vouch for their entire exactness, yet I believe they will be found approximately correct: at least I have spared no pains to verify and check them as far as lay in my power. They are intended to show for eleven cities and for two States the average cost, calculated on the average number on the registers of the schools—not on the average attendance—of the education of each child, first, in schools of every grade collectively, (*a*) for tuition only, (*b*) for the whole expenditure, including tuition; and, secondly, in instances where it was procurable from the returns, the average total cost per child in each of the three chief grades of schools.*

Average cost of education exhibited in a Table.

Name of City or State.	Average cost in all the Schools for tuition only.	Average cost for whole expenditure.	Average cost in High Schools.	Average cost in Grammar Schools.	Average cost in Primary Schools.
	$	$	$	$	$
Detroit	6.59	—	—	—	—
Toledo	8.34	—	—	—	—
Chicago	8.60	13.55	45.35	12.66	12.67
Newhaven	8.85	—	—	—	—
Providence	9.17	—	—	—	—
Philadelphia	9.38	13.33	39.56 Girls 52.42 Boys	8.97	8.97
St. Louis	11.17	13.67	54.45	12.20	12.20
Louisville	11.42	—	—	—	—
Cincinnati	11.48	—	—	—	—
Boston	12.04	16.89	39.88 Girls 60.93 Latin 70.30 English	17.29	11.96
New York City	17.29	—	88.13	16.60	16.60
Ohio	5.27	6.90	—	—	—
Massachusetts	—	7.41	—	—	—
Average for the cities	10.39	14.36	36.22 Girls 62.60 Boys	13.54	12.48

Inferences from this table.

It appears, then, from this Table that the average cost of the education of a child in the common schools of all grades in 11 of the principal cities of the Union is about $\$10\frac{1}{2}$, or 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* a year for tuition only; and for incidental expenses, about $\$4$ or 12*s.* more; making a total of 2*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.* or at the outside 2*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.* In the High School, which is the American type of a school suitable to the education of the children of the middle class, and to which children are ordinarily admitted at the age of 12 or 13, and in which they remain till they are 17 or 18, the

Value of a dollar in English money.

* *See 46th Philadelphia Report*, p. 19; *22nd Detroit Report*, p. 38. In the Philadelphia calculations, the cost of the Boston schools in the first column is set down at $\$15.71$. I have taken my figures from the Report of the Boston Superintendent for 1864 (p. 129), which I have verified. In turning American money into English, it must be remembered that these dollars are "greenbacks," worth—at the date at which these calculations were made—with gold at from 40 to 50 premium, not more than 3*s.* or 3*s.* 6*d.* at a broker's, and in purchasing power, as compared with English prices, not worth so much as 3*s.* For a vast number of purposes I found that in 1865 a dollar in the United States hardly went farther than a shilling does at home.

average cost of a boy's education is $62\frac{1}{2}$, or about 9*l.* 9*s.*; of a girl's, $36\frac{1}{4}$, or about 5*l.* 10*s.* a year.* It is evident that economy must be carefully practised, in order to secure such results at so small a price. It is practised chiefly under the head of teachers' salaries, about which I shall have a more convenient place to speak further on. But I may just say here, that the highest salary of a teacher in any class of school, or indeed in any college or university that I met with in the United States, is the salary of the Principal of the Free Academy at New York, and that is only $4000 (having been recently raised from $3000), or about 600*l.* a year. I must have astonished the school teachers of Ohio—I hope I did not make them dissatisfied with their position—when I told them, in my sketch of the school system of England, that the net income of the head-master of Eton was probably $25,000 a year; of the head-master of Harrow, even more. Such remuneration never enters into the heads of American teachers, even in dreams.†

Cheapness of American Education.

Low salaries of teachers.

The cost per child in schools in the rural districts is, of course, much less than in the towns; and when it is observed that in Massachusetts, the most forward State in the Union in this matter of education, the whole average cost per child both in town and country schools is less than seven and a half dollars or about 25*s.* a year, an idea may be formed of the cheap rate at which a New England farmer, or, indeed, any rural resident may provide for the education of his family. In the New York State Report cases are mentioned in which the salaries of teachers—the main article of expense in such schools—are as low as $2, about 7*s.*, a week, or even a dollar and a quarter, exclusive, I presume, of board. The school, perhaps, is not kept open for more than 24 weeks in the year, so that the whole expenditure would not reach more than

Cost of education in rural schools.

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* It will be seen, however, by reference to the table, how little the calculation of an average is really worth. The differences of cost, though, which are most marked, are not altogether inexplicable. Thus the difference of $5 between the average cost at Boston and New York may probably be accounted for by the much larger comparative expenditure upon the Free Academy, with its numerous staff of highly salaried teachers, than upon the more modest equipment of the Boston High Schools; and besides, as has been mentioned, it is the New York plan to provide text-books for the scholars free of charge. In other cities, also, teachers' salaries range much lower than at Boston or New York; and in Detroit, which does the work of education at lowest cost of all, the pressure upon the schools for admittance is so much greater than they can bear, and there is such an indisposition just now under the smart of other heavy burdens to lay out money on providing additional buildings, that a half-time system—the only instance that I met with in America—has been devised, which is working favourably, both in enlarging the capacity of the schools, and in sparing the pockets of the rate-payers. The question in Detroit at the present moment is, "not how much they can spend, but how "little they can get along with, and meet the immediate wants of the people." (*See Detroit 22nd Report*, p. 21).

Differences in the Table accounted for.

Half-time system at Detroit.

† Petitions have been almost universally presented by American city teachers requesting a rise in salary, in view of the rise in price of every article of consumption; and in most cases an advance has been made varying from 10 to 30 per cent., but in no case equivalent to the increased cost of house-keeping generated by high tariffs and the war.

Rise in teachers' wages.

$100, about 15*l.* or 16*l.*; and supposing it to be attended by 30 scholars, the cost would be barely more than $3, or 10*s.*, a head. Indeed, in the American Almanac for 1864, in the great State of Illinois, with its 9,811 schools, its 15,000 teachers, and its 516,000 scholars, the average rate of tuition per scholar for the whole State is only set down at $2.55; and the cost of incidentals for the whole State would certainly not raise the average above $4, or 12*s.* or 14*s.*, per child. So that I believe it is nothing more than a sober conclusion that an American farmer frequently gets an education for his family, of the quality and quantity of which I will speak afterwards, at a cost to the community of not more than 10*s.* a year per child, one-third of the amount at which our own Committee of Council have been in the habit of rating the cost of the education of the children of an English mechanic or labouring man.

General conclusion.

ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS.

The administration of the schools was the next point to which my attention was directed, in my instructions, to be paid; and I was ordered to inquire "into the relations which exist between "the State or central Government and the local Government; into "the constitution of the local governing bodies; into the relations "between them and the teachers, and of the teachers among "themselves and with their scholars; into the extent to which "mistresses are employed in schools for either or for both sexes; "into the character and frequency of any inspection or control by

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* See *National Almanac for* 1864, p. 397.

† One or two typical cases will set out this inference more clearly than can be done by a table of averages. In Saratoga county, New York, 2nd district, containing 505 square miles, and including 127 school districts, the school commissioner, whom I had the pleasure of meeting on one of his school errands at Saratoga, presents this balance sheet for the year:—

Some particular instances of cost of education.

Income.	Dollars.	Expenditure.	Dollars.
State apportionment -	10,149	Teachers' wages - -	15,588
Local tax - - -	5,794	Library - - -	182
Rate-bills - - -	3,613	Apparatus - - -	45
Other sources - -	338	Repairs and furniture -	924
		Incidentals - - -	2,435
Total -	19,894	Total -	19,174

The number of persons residing in the district between five and 21 years of age is 9,395, of whom 6,402 are reported to have attended school. The average cost in this case is not three dollars and a quarter a head (*New York, 11th Report*, p. 290).

In Monroe county, second district, 6959 children are reported to "have been "enjoying school privileges" at a total cost of $27,306, a little under $4 apiece. Salaries in this district are $7 a week for masters, and $4.50 for mistresses. (*Ibid.* p. 235, 6).

In Lewis county, second district, the number of children taught for a longer or shorter period was 4,169; the expenditure was $9,113; average, about $2¼ each (*Ibid.* p. 222–3.)

In Massachusetts, 46 townships raised less than $3 per child for the education of all within their territory between the ages of five and 15; and the addition of the State appropriation would only raise the average to $3¼.

It is unnecessary to carry this accumulation of evidence any further.

" the governors; into the qualifications, duties, and salaries of " the teachers, the tenure of their office, and the character and " repute of their profession."

As already observed, the idea upon which the American Common School system is based is the absolute competency of the township or local organization, by whatever name known, to determine for itself what is best to be done in relation to any of those interests in which it is supposed to be immediately and principally concerned. Hence, though the Legislature of the State often, indeed generally, defines and constitutes these local organizations, yet, when they have been constituted, they are allowed to do their work almost unchecked in their own way. The central Government—of the State, of course, is meant, not of the nation—creates the local school administration, and then transfers all its powers to it. At the most, afterwards, it does but attempt to stimulate; it does not venture to dictate or control. This is signally the case in New England: it is true in its degree of New York and the Western States. The Massachusetts Board of Education* admit that they " have no power whatever over the schools of the State," and that all they can do is " to regard their progress with watch- " ful interest." Even the stimulant, which the central Government, has in its power to apply, is not very potent in its character. In Massachusetts it amounts only to an annual subsidy of less than a quarter of a dollar—about tenpence—per child, on condition that the locality meets the donation with at least six times as large a sum raised from its own resources. In New York, and I believe in Pennsylvania too, the central Government, acting through the Chief Superintendent, has more influence over the schools, and the system is more bureaucratic; but even there, judging from its own admission of inability to produce desired results, the power must be nominal rather than real. The visitatorial power of the

Fundamental idea of the common school organization.

Relation of the central Government to school.

In Massachusetts.

In New York.

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* *Mass. 24th Report*, p. 5. The Massachusetts Board of Education, an institution, I believe, peculiar to that State, consists of the Governor and Lieut.-Governor of the State, and eight persons appointed by the Governor with the advice and consent of his Council; each to hold office for eight years from date of appointment, and one retiring each year. Their functions are to hold property in trust for educational purposes; to prescribe forms and registers for schools, and of returns to be made by school committees; to prepare an Annual Report for the information of the State Legislature; to appoint a Secretary to make abstracts of school returns, quicken interest, and diffuse information, and one or more Agents to visit the townships for similar purposes; to arrange for the meeting of Teachers' Institutes, and appropriate a portion of the State School Fund towards their expenses; and to fix the territorial divisions of the State, to which scholarships for the maintenance of students at colleges or normal schools are allotted.

Massachusetts Board of Education.

† The nominal powers of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of New York are considerable. It is his business to visit the common schools of the State and inquire into their condition; to apportion, according to certain prescribed rules, the State school moneys among the several districts; to grant and revoke certificates of teachers; to annul certificates granted by other bodies upon cause shown to his satisfaction; to remove school commissioners and other school officers for neglect of duty, and to withhold part or the whole of their salary; to prepare suitable forms for reports and registers; and to submit to the Legislature an Annual Report, with such suggestions for

New York Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Superintendent is exercised chiefly through the School Commissioners; and these officers though removable by him and paid by him, are not appointed by him, but are elected by ballot in their several districts, and are dependent for a portion of their salary upon the liberality of the Supervisors of the county in which they act. These School Commissioners, again, are clothed with considerable authority; but, on the evidence of their own reports, the "*vis inertiæ*" of a district is a power against which they frequently find themselves struggling in vain.*

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improvement in education as he may deem expedient (*See New York School Law of* 1864, Title i. s. 1-19).

New York School Commissioners.

* In the State of New York, the counties are divided into "assembly districts," as nearly equal as may be in respect of population, each returning one member to the House of Assembly in the State Legislature. They are 128 in number. For educational purposes they are called "commissioner districts," and for each of them is elected by vote of the inhabitants a "school commissioner." There are 112 of these officers, the 16 districts embraced by the city and county of New York, apparently, not being included in the organization, but having a special educational constitution of their own. A school commissioner's salary is $500 a year out of the income of the United States' Deposit Fund, and $200 for his expenses, levied by tax on the township of his district, together with any further sum that the Board of Supervisors of his district may think fit to allow him. His duties are, to form, and when necessary, to alter the boundaries of the school districts within his range; to visit and examine all schools as often in each year as practicable; to direct trustees to make any needful repairs not beyond the cost of $25, in concurrence with the supervisor of the township; to condemn unfit school-houses; to examine and license such teachers as have not a State Superintendent's certificate or a Normal School's diploma; to examine charges against teachers, and, if proved, to annul their certificate, by whomsoever granted; to report annually to the State Superintendent, by whose rules and regulations he is required to abide.

Centralizing and individualizing tendencies in New York.

The functions, therefore, of a New York school commissioner are nearly those of a township school committee in Massachusetts, and the duties of a trustee in the former State are those of the prudential committee in the latter. In New York there is a tendency to concentrate power in individuals; in Massachusetts, to lodge it in bodies. Thus there is no Board of Education in New York, but its place is occupied by a State Superintendent. There is one school commissioner in place of a school committee; one trustee—three are allowed, but one is generally preferred—in place of a prudential committee (who, it is true, may be, and sometimes is, an individual also); one supervisor of the township instead of a body of selectmen.

New York system dates from 1856.

The present mode of school supervision in New York was introduced in 1856. Previously, inspection was performed by township superintendents, who, of course, still more than the school commissioners, would be under the influence of local prejudices and partialities. The results of the present system are affirmed by the chief superintendent to be "incomparably superior both in "economy and efficiency" (*11th Report*, 1865. p. 43).

Pennsylvanian system.

In Pennsylvania a similar system was introduced in 1854, and is said to be effective; but even here, a mischievous element, that penetrates most American institutions, cannot be entirely excluded. "It is believed," however, says the State Superintendent, "that the method of electing these officers, as now "directed by law"—that is, by the school directors of the several townships composing the county, in convention assembled—"is *less exposed to the dis-*

A disturbing element.

"*turbing element of party spirit* than any other that could be adopted. This "energizing agency of the system is becoming more and more efficient and "potent every year, and the labours and influence of the superintendents are "being more and more appreciated by the people" (*Pennsylvania 31st Report*, p. 36). It appears, though, that the mode in which their salaries are fixed, "is still liable to insuperable objections, . . . and affords directors who are

Indeed, the want of a central bureau, as a department of the Secretaryship of the Interior, to preside over the interests of education—a Ministry of Public Instruction, or something analogous to our own Committee of the Privy Council—in spite of the antecedent dislike to centralization, appeared to be making itself widely felt in the United States.* The supreme control of the schools is too absolutely in the hands of local administrators with no adequate guarantee of competency; the inspection even of county Superintendents and Commissioners is often found to be nugatory and ineffective: legal requirements are constantly ignored or evaded, and a properly authenticated and *independent* officer like

Desire felt in some quarters for a Ministry of Public Instruction in the National Government.

" opposed to the office an opportunity to fix them so low that no man who is " competent to perform the duties will accept the office " (*Ibid.*)

The Ohio State Commissioner, when recommending the adoption of the New York and Pennsylvanian system in his own State, asserts that "whatever lack " of efficiency it has exhibited, may be traced directly to *incompetent officers*, " and that the prime source of this mischief is *political influence*. . . What is " needed is, not simply the supervisory office, but the office so created as to " guard it effectually from unqualified aspirants." He recommends, in consequence, that the person, chosen as in Pennsylvania by the school directors of the several townships, should be required, before entering upon the duties of the office, to procure a certificate of qualification from a competent board of examiners (*Ohio 11th Report*, 1865, p. 38).

Recommendations of Hon. E. E. White.

But, in face of the public opinion which sets so strongly in favour of frequent changes of officers—this too, I suspect, traceable to political motives—he does not venture to suggest more with regard to the term of office, than that "it " should not be less than two years."

I was surprised to find how universally in the United States the mischievous influence of "politicians" was felt and deplored in its bearing upon the schools. In some of the wards of New York city, the political motive is omnipotent in the election of trustees, and the consequences are said to be very unsatisfactory both as regards the appointment of teachers and the general well-being of the schools. "If we cannot do this," said Mr. Barnard in his address to the Ohio Teachers' Association, recommending the filling up of the vacancies in the United States Naval and Military Academies at Annapolis and West Point by examination, instead of by nomination—"if we cannot do this, it is simply because the politicians won't let us do it" (*Ohio Educational Monthly* Sept. 1865, p. 270).

Influence of politicians.

* "It was my intention," said Mr. Barnard in the same address, "to speak " on the creation of a Bureau of Education in the Department of the Interior, for " the collection and dissemination of statistics. Why should not this great interest " of 200,000 schools, 8,000,000 of children and youths, 500,000 teachers, receive " the same attention from the general government that other interests do of, to " say the least, no greater magnitude? What is there, in all that concerns the " civilization of this people, of as much importance as the matter of the right " education of these millions of children? If we have found it necessary and " desirable to establish a financial, commercial, and an agricultural bureau—if " the Government has found it advisable to appropriate 600,000 acres of land to " found agricultural and mechanical schools"—(Mr. Barnard must refer to the appropriation to the single State of Ohio, which is 630,000 acres; the whole amount appropriated would be probably twenty times as great,) "why " should it not do something in the way of collecting and disseminating facts " respecting this class of schools, and especially in establishing a competitive " system of appointments and promotions?"

Mr. Barnard on a "Bureau of Education."

Mr. Barnard quite carried the opinion of the meeting with him. It was resolved, "That we heartily approve the measure of establishing at Washington, " in the Department of the Interior, an educational bureau for the advancement " of general and liberal education, and we would earnestly urge upon congress " the importance of establishing such a bureau" (*Ibid.* p. 271 & 256).

Independent inspection the want of the American system.

Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools among ourselves, armed with visitatorial powers and with means provided for giving effect to his recommendations, appears to be the element wanting in the machinery of the system to give it that balance which the complication of its parts requires.

Adequate supervision in the cities.

In the larger cities, such as New York, Boston, New Haven, Cincinnati, Chicago, this element is supplied in the person of the City Superintendent, and the increase of vigour and efficiency that is thereby infused into the system is very observable.* It may be appropriate here to describe briefly the school organization of the city of New York, which in theory is as complete as that of Boston or of any other place, while in the extent and magnificence of its operations, administering upwards of $2,000,000 a year, it outstrips all competitors.†

No supervision of schools in Philadelphia.

* I was astonished to find that in the great city of Philadelphia, with its 376 schools, 1,278 teachers, and 74,343 scholars, there is no Superintendent The schools are under the general management of a Board called "The Board of Controllers," consisting of 26 members, one from each ward. The schools of each ward are managed by "school directors" elected by the people. Each Board of Directors elect one of their number to serve as a member of the Board of Controllers This latter Board appoint committees to take special charge of the two High Schools. Political influences are said to act adversely to the interests of the schools in the appointment of "directors," some of whom are quite illiterate.

Mr. White, the State Commissioner of Ohio, reports unfavourably the results of a visit he paid to the schools of Philadelphia. "We speak freely," he says, "respecting the condition of the lower schools of Philadelphia, because we "were not prepared to find such old-fogyism. A jury of intelligent educators "would, in our opinion, pronounce them 25 years behind the district schools "of Cincinnati We think the explanation of this result is found largely in "the fact that *the schools of Philadelphia are practically without supervision.* "The supervision bestowed on the Cincinnati Schools would soon work a "wonderful change in those of Philadelphia" (*Ohio Educational Monthly*, July, 1865, p. 216). The omission is more remarkable as supervision has formed a feature in the school organization of Pennsylvania for 12 years.

The school organization of Boston.

† I will describe in this note, for the purpose of collation, the organization of Boston. The administrative body is called "the School Committee," as elsewhere in a Massachusetts township. It consists of the Mayor and the President of the Common Council, *ex officio*, and 72 other persons, elected by the 12 wards of the city, six in each, their term of office being limited to three years, so as to allow the election of two fresh members each year. "The said "Committee shall have the care and management of the public schools, and may "elect all such instructors as they may deem proper, and remove the same when-"ever they may consider it expedient. And generally they shall have all the "powers in relation to the care and management of the public schools which the "selectmen of townships or school committees are authorized by the laws of this "Commonwealth to exercise" (*Charter of City of Boston*, s. 56).

The city is divided for convenience of management into as many districts as it has grammar schools—at this date 20 in number—each district taking its name from the grammar school within its boundaries; and the President of the School Committee is to appoint at the first meeting of the Board in each year, and subject to its approval, a standing committee on each district, whose number in each case, varying from eight to 12, shall be proportionate to the number of schools in the district. The Board is further organized into nine Standing Committees for various general purposes: (1) On elections; (2) On rules and regulations; (3) On salaries; (4) On accounts; (5) On text-books; (6) On school-houses; (7) On music; (8) On printing; (9) On gymnastics and military drill. Each standing committee consists of five members. The

New York city system.

By an Act of the State Legislature, passed the 25th April 1864, the city of New York, which is co-extensive with the county, is divided into seven school districts, which include within their boundaries the 22 wards which form the municipal organization. The highest functions relative to the schools are vested in a Board of Education, consisting of 21 members, called "commissioners," who are elected by ballot, three for each school district, to hold office for three years, one retiring by rotation every year.* For each district also are appointed three inspectors, one being nominated annually by the mayor of the city, subject to the approval of the majority of the Board of Education. In each ward there is a board of five trustees elected by ballot, one each year, to hold office for five years. Every school officer must reside in the district or ward for which he is elected; if he removes his home he vacates his office.

Board of Education.

Inspectors.

Trustees.

Classification of schools.

The ward schools are classified into grammar, primary, and evening schools. Principals and vice-principals of schools are appointed by the Board of Education on the nomination of a majority of the board of trustees of the ward. Other teachers and the janitors are appointed by a majority of the board of trustees. Teachers may be removed by the Board of Education on the recommendation of the city superintendent or of a majority of the trustees of the ward, or of the inspectors of the district. The board of trustees may also remove teachers, other than principals and vice-principals, subject, however, to appeal to the Board of Education. Licenses to teach are granted by the city superintendent or one of his assistants, after examination conducted in the presence of two inspectors designated for that duty by the Board. The license may be revoked by the same authority, under the check of a right of appeal to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Appointment or removal of teachers.

Duties of the Board.

It is the duty of the Board of Education:

To report annually to the Board of Supervisors of the county the sum which will be required during the year for the current expenses of public instruction in the city;

To apportion the money so appropriated to the schools entitled to participate therein; and to file with the City Chamberlain a copy of their apportionment;

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board have a Secretary, and annually elect by ballot a Superintendent of schools. It will be at once perceived, by comparison with the text, that the administration of the Boston schools has been constructed after a much simpler pattern than that which has been adopted at New York.

New York Board of Education.

* The Board of Education divides itself into 15 standing committees: (1) On the free academy; (2) On normal schools; (3) On evening schools; (4) On finance; (5) On sites and new schools; (6) On school furniture; (7) On warming and ventilation; (8) On buildings; (9) On supplies; (10) On auditing the accounts; (11) On byelaws, rules, and regulations; (12) On elections and qualifications (13) On course of studies and school-books; (14) On teachers; (15) On appeals.

Also the Board has the usual apparatus of officers,—clerk, deputy clerk, auditor, assistant clerks, porter, messenger, and janitor.

The premises they occupy are spacious, and conveniently situated in the centre of the city.

To supervise, manage, and govern the Free Academy, and to provide it with all things necessary to enable it to be properly and successfully conducted;

To provide evening schools, and also a normal school or schools for teachers, and to furnish both with all needful supplies;

To establish and to discontinue schools in the different wards of the city, as they may deem expedient, and to furnish them with what they may require;

To transmit annually to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and to the Common Council of the city of New York a written report of all their proceedings, together with the usual financial and statistical returns required from schools.

Functions of District Inspectors.

The functions of the district inspectors, in the letter of the law, are more important than those of any other official persons connected with the administration of the schools. It is their duty to audit the accounts of the trustees nor is any expense to be paid till it has been certified as correct by them. They are also to examine, at least once every quarter, all the schools in the district, in respect of the punctual and regular attendance both of pupils and teachers; the number, fidelity, and competency of the teachers; the studies, progress, order and discipline of the pupils; the cleanliness, safety, warming, ventilation, and comfort of the school premises; and specially to see whether the provisions of the law in respect of the teaching of sectarian doctrines or the use of sectarian books have been observed or violated; and to call the attention of the trustees without delay to every matter requiring immediate action. Finally, before the end of the year, they are to make a written report to the Board of Education and to the board of trustees, in respect of the condition, efficiency, and wants of the district both as regards schools and school premises.*

School-visits by Commissioners,

* *See Manual of New York Board of Education*, pp. 33-34. It is the duty of "Commissioners" also to "visit and examine all the schools entitled to par- "ticipate in the apportionment;" but nothing is said of the number or frequency of such visits, nor of the mode or objects of such examination. The visits of Commissioners, therefore, when paid, would probably be of a more informal and perfunctory character, just a "dropping in," without any precise motive or previous notice, to see how things are going on.

and Superintendent.

The Superintendent, again, is charged either by himself or by his assistants (of whom there are four) to visit every school connected with the Board of Education, "as often as once in each year;" but the purpose of his visit, as defined by law, is not more extensive than that of the visits of inspectors, while these latter are to visit the schools four times as often. The duties of inspectors appear to have been very much enlarged by the Act of 1864: before I read its provisions, these officers were described to me as having little to attend to beyond the care of the premises and *matériel* of the schools. And even now, I suspect their powers are largely delegated to the Superintendent, whose examination is the only really thorough one that the schools undergo. Certainly, I did not hear very much of the action of inspectors in relation to the schools; and, though in my visits I constantly met commissioners and trustees in the schools, I am not aware that I ever encountered an inspector. The office seems to me to be an unnecessary wheel in the system, and to add nothing in the way either of completeness or efficiency.

Superfluousness of inspectors.

The Trustees are a corporation for holding all personal property* vested in them for school purposes in their respective wards. They are the persons really responsible for the conduct and management of the schools, though they do not appear to be bound to visit them till their action is called out by the report either of the Inspectors or of the Superintendent. They are charged with the safe keeping of the school premises of their ward; with the appointment of all teachers below the rank of principal or vice-principal, and with the financial arrangements of their schools; and are bound, at least five days before the 1st January in each year, to transmit to the Board of Education a detailed report of the number of schools under their jurisdiction, and the length of time each has been kept open; the number of scholars who have been taught free of cost in them; the average attendance; the amount of money received and paid on account of the schools, and the manner in which the same has been expended; and a particular statement of the condition of their schools, together with any other information that the Board of Education may require. The Trustees.

One might have feared that such an apparent complication of management might occasionally lead to difficulties, and that, according to our homely proverb, so many cooks might spoil the broth. I did not, however, learn that in practice it was so. The machinery, though somewhat complex, appeared to run smoothly. Occasionally there might be resentment exhibited by a teacher at what was deemed an impertinent or an injudicious interference on the part of a Trustee; but these are events which must inevitably sometimes occur whenever irritable or sensitive human beings have to act one towards another in any relation, whether of subordination or co-ordination. Indeed, the latter is perhaps the more difficult The machinery complex, but apparently working smoothly.

I could not help being struck with the general interest felt and taken in such cities as New York, Boston, Cincinnati, &c., in the welfare of the schools. In New York the office of trustee is altogether unremunerated, and commissioners and inspectors are only allowed "their actual and reasonable expenses while "attending to their duties." And yet it is not at all unusual to find men of business, lawyers, merchants, &c., to whom very emphatically time is money, devoting an hour or two in a morning, not once in a way merely, but week by week, to the visitation of schools, before they go to their office or store. The powerful effect of such influence upon the well-being of the schools can easily be conceived. It presents a marked contrast to the apathy and indifference, on the part of both school officers and parents, which the reports so often describe and lament, as prevailing in rural districts. I admit that, so far as my own judgment goes, I wish these visits could be paid without so much speechification accompanying them. But this is the American habit, and it may have some advantages which were not apparent to me. Generalinterest taken in the schools.

* By the "personal property" of a school is understood its library, school books, maps, globes, philosophical apparatus, cabinets, &c. The real estate—the lot and buildings—is vested in the City Council, and is placed under the care and control of the Board of Education. I am no lawyer, but it sounds to me odd phraseology to say, as the school law does say, that the trustees hold, as a corporation, all personal property vested in them for school purposes in their respective wards, and in the same breath to say that the title to all school property real and personal shall be vested in the mayor, aldermen, and commonalty of the city (See *Manual* pp. 38 & 53); unless it be that the property held by trustees is the produce of private benefaction; that vested in the City Council the fruit of taxation.

Too much co-ordination in the system.

relation of the two; and the theoretic defect of the American system of school administration is, that it calls into existence too many administrators with co-ordinate and almost conflicting powers. In a modern phrase, it is not sufficiently "hierarchical." But when people are in earnest, and particularly when they are animated by a high public spirit, they are not apt to be touchy upon points of precedence, nor jealous for the claims of prerogative. And such I believe to be the happy state of public feeling which animates the administration of American schools.*

The field of the New York Administration.

The field of administration of these New York school authorities is the most extensive in America: I suppose, in the mere article of education, and considering the details into which it descends, the most extensive in the world. It comprehends 53 ward schools, nearly all in three departments, and containing on an average more than 1,000 scholars apiece, besides which are 41 detached primary schools, with an average attendance of more than 15,000, and nine coloured schools, with an attendance of 800; 26 evening schools with an average of 9,500 attendants; 12 corporate schools of a charitable or reformatory character, educating on the average 4,800 children; and the Free Academy with its 800 young men. It has to examine, license, superintend, and pay nearly 2,300 teachers. It disbursed for the year 1864 the enormous sum of $1,873,577,† or nearly 300,000*l.* 208,000 children are reported

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Public spirit and the politicians.

* It is emphatically so in Boston. I never heard there so much as the whisper of a jar. It is so to a very large extent in New York; but, unhappily, in some of the wards, that prolific source of mischief, the politicians are beginning to find out that the schools can be used to promote their interests or serve their purposes. And thus, of course, an influence creeps in, the most remote of all from true public spirit. In country districts, where ignorant or illiberal men are often dressed in a little brief authority, the harmonious action of all the parts of the system, as I judge from the tone of local reports, is not quite so perfect.

Money, how expended.

† The principal items in this large expenditure were as follows:—

For teachers' salaries, $1,020,114:

For support of evening schools, $76,731, varying at per scholar from $20.19, the highest (a female school in the 12th ward), to $4.47 the lowest rate (a male school in the 1st ward):

To the Free Academy, $80,357:

For janitors' wages, $54,705; supplies of books and stationery, $105,787; incidental expenses, including fuel, $132,858:

For sites and buildings, $203,544; for repairs, $13,957:

For expenses of the board, and salaries of its officers, $69,853 (*Report for* 1865, p. 5).

How levied.

The money is levied by the Board of Supervisors of the county upon the property of all the inhabitants of the city and county of New York, as follows:—

(a) A sum equal to the sum apportioned to the county out of the State school moneys:

(b) A sum equal to one-twentieth of one per cent.—that is, half a mill on the dollar—of the capital value of all real and personal property in the city and county; and

(c) Such further sum, not to exceed the rate of $5 for each scholar taught in the year according to the official returns, as the Board of Education shall have reported to be necessary.

In 1864, the amounts received under these several heads were: (a) $250,616; (b) $297,077; (c) $989,405; which, added to the State appropriation, pro-

in the course of that year to have been taught for a greater or less period of time in its schools. I conceive it to be the largest *local* board of management—certainly the largest local *educational* board of management—in the world.

The school teachers.

I pass on to consider the position, qualifications, and duties of a body of men and women, upon whose behaviour and competency the condition of education in the United States depends far more than on the united efforts of State commissioners, boards of education, local superintendents, and trustees. I refer to the "half-million of teachers," as Mr. Barnard roundly figures them, in whose hands are placed the instruction and discipline of American schools. "As is the teacher, so is the school," is a maxim the truth of which is as fully recognised in America as in England. That the schools in so many districts, particularly in rural districts, are not equal to what they ought to be is set down with an almost unanimous consentience of testimony, to one principal cause, the inefficiency of the teachers; while this again is as unanimously accounted for by the miserably low rate of stipend with which their services in so many instances are remunerated.

Preponde-

The vast majority of these teachers are females,* and most of

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duced a total sum of $1,785,043, which left a balance, as compared with the expenditure, of $86,533 to be provided for out of the fund of the next year.

Percentage of taxation for schools to property in New York.

If (b) represents one-twentieth of one per cent., (a) and (c) together amount to about one-fifth; so that the taxation levied for the school purposes of the city and county of New York amounts to one fourth of one per cent., or two and a half mills on the dollar, of the capital value of the real and personal estate therein, which in 1863 was estimated at $594,154,743 (*Report for* 1865, p. 5). If we add to this the State school tax of three-quarters of a mill on the dollar, which produces about $450,000, and of which New York receives back little more than one-half, we get three and a quarter mills on the dollar as the total amount of tax for school purposes which each New York citizen has to pay on the capital value of his real and personal property, the same being assessed at about three-quarters of its actual value.

Money, how paid.

The whole of the money raised and received is paid into the City Treasury, and is disbursed by the City Chamberlain to the persons entitled to receive the same upon drafts drawn upon him, signed, in the case of ward schools, by the President, and countersigned by the Clerk of the Board of Education, and one or more commissioners of the district for which the money is due; and in the case of other than ward schools, by drafts on the Chamberlain, signed by the President and Clerk of the Board, and made payable to the order of the treasurer of the trustees of such schools. These schools are the corporate schools mentioned in the text; *ex. gr.* the New York Juvenile Asylum, &c.

Opinions of the efficiency of female teachers.

* There is a strong preference in the United States for the employment of females as teachers, chiefly on the score of superior cheapness, but also in the estimation of many, on the ground of superior efficiency.

Mr. White of Ohio.

"The returns," says the State Commissioner of Ohio, "show a continued increase in the number of female teachers employed, and a corresponding decrease in the number of male teachers. In 1862 only 48 per cent. of the teachers employed were women; in 1863 59 per cent.; while this year shows an increase to 62 per cent. It is believed that the number of female teachers might be still increased without detriment to the schools, since it must be conceded that in the great majority of our schools women make better teachers than men. Even the supposed superiority of male teachers in school government is not confirmed by experience. The better class of female teachers are succeeding just as well, and often better, than the average male teachers. The School Commissioner of Rhode Island gives it as his opinion that they are succeeding in that State oftener than male teachers, even in the management of

The Commissioner of Rhode Island.

rance of female teachers.

them very young females. By the regulation of the New York Board of Education, no certificate of qualification as a teacher is

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turbulent boys; while in the formation of the manners, and in the cultivation of the morals and tastes of children, they are incomparably better teachers than men" (*Ohio, Eleventh Report*, p. 11).

Mr. Rice of New York.

The State Superintendent of New York is almost carried away by his sentiments in this regard. He "points with undisguised pleasure to the fact "that nearly four-fifths of the teachers employed in the schools of the State "are females. It is impossible to over-estimate the value of the influence "thus brought to bear upon daily-developing mind and character in our "schools. To teach and train the young seems to be one of the chief missions "of woman. Herself high-minded, the minds of those with whom she comes "in daily contact unconsciously aspire. Gentle herself, she renders them "gentle. Pure herself, she makes them pure. The fire, which truly refines "the ore of character, can be kindled only by her hand. Woman is more "deeply read than man in the mysteries of human nature, at least of that of "children. It might, perhaps, be nearer the truth to say that her superior "knowledge in this respect is intuitive. Better her discipline of love than his "reformatory theories, and austere rules, and stringent systems. Her touch "conquers the rebelliousness which his but increases. Her persuasive reproofs "far exceed his stern menaces, and cold logic. Well may we be solicitous in "regard to that pupil's course and destiny who does not pass from the scene "of women's ministrations, with his moral sense so delicately attuned as to "render the discords of a vicious life impossible; with his tastes vitalized, "and his perceptions quickened; with his sensibilities and sympathies all "ready for action; with his conscience trained to unremitting vigilance; and "the best impulses of his heart in full play. I am sure that the future will be "grateful for these labours of woman in our schools" (*Eleventh New York Report*, 1865, pp. 16, 17).

It is a bathos to descend from these realms almost of poetry and romance to figures and statistics; but the following table is worth notice, as illustrating the subject of this note.

Table showing proportion of male and female teachers.

Locality.	Number of Teachers employed.	
	Males.	Females.
State of Massachusetts	1,544	9,340
„ Connecticut, winter schools	757	1,338
„ „ summer schools	135	1,892
„ Rhode Island	230	430
„ New Hampshire	759	3,262
„ New York	5,707	21,181
„ Ohio	7,832	12,826
„ Illinois	7,713	7,381
„ Pennsylvania	6,903	7,765
City of Boston	63	522
„ New York	202	2,057
„ New Haven	10	66
„ Cincinnati	44	188
„ Philadelphia	84	1,155
„ Chicago	23	189
„ St. Louis	18	144
„ Detroit	8	75

It will be noticed that the State of Illinois—and even there the ratio may now be altered, as the latest return I have is for 1862—is the only one in which there is a preponderance of male teachers. In the *cities*, the ratio of males to females is much higher than the average of the *States*, being in fact nearly

to be granted to any person whose age is less than 17 years; and though I do not observe a similar restriction specified elsewhere, yet I presume that this may be taken as the average American notion of the minimum age at which a person is fit to be placed in a position of authority in a school.* It is the universal rule in

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nine to one. In Philadelphia it is fourteen to one. The difference between the winter and summer sessions of the schools in Connecticut illustrates a general phenomenon, viz. that male scholars of maturer years are found in larger numbers in the winter schools; that male teachers are, therefore, more generally sought for the winter term; and that they are procured most frequently from students pursuing an academical course at some of the numerous colleges or universities in which the States abound, who, being perhaps in indigent circumstances, are permitted to interrupt their course of study for the purpose of earning one or two hundred dollars, which may enable them afterwards to complete it.

Difference between winter and summer school session.

The figures in the above table do not represent the number of teachers at any one time in a State, but the number of persons employed in the year for which the return is made. A comparison of these figures with the number of school departments in each State would exhibit two very great evils in the American system; the first, the precariousness of teachers' tenure of their situations; the second, the frequency with which they change from school to school, or from school keeping to some other mode of gaining a livelihood. In Connecticut, out of upwards of 2,000 teachers, only 949 are reported to have taught in the same school for as much as two successive terms. In almost all the Reports the rapid changes of teachers are deplored as one of the greatest hindrances to the progress of the schools. The changes occur chiefly in the rural districts, and among the junior teachers in the city schools. I found principals and vice-principals who had grown gray in their work, and had remained in the same situation, or in the same school, for 10, 20, and even 30 years. The general rule in the cities is to appoint teachers for the year, with, of course, the prospect of re-election; in the country, to engage them only for the single term, which may not be more than a dozen weeks. Even if they are re-engaged for the ensuing term, the salary would not continue running during the vacations. The work, however, particularly in the city schools, where, in spite of the remonstrances of Committees and Superintendents, there is a good deal of competition, and consequently of "high pressure," appears to be very trying to the female constitution; and most mistresses, after four or five years continuous employment in teaching, are found to require a longer or shorter period of repose. They take a great deal out of themselves, do these American teachers, by the energy with which they throw themselves upon their work. I was struck with the number of both mistresses and girls in the higher classes of the schools who wore glasses, or in other ways showed symptoms of weakened sight. I mentioned the circumstance to the Principal of the Salem Normal School, and he accounted for it by the habit of "voracious reading," coupled with the disinclination that most American women of all ages have for exercise in the fresh air.

Frequent change of teachers a great evil in American system.

Ordinary term of engagement.

Symptoms of weak health among female teachers.

* The item of "Teachers' Age" does not appear in the statistical tables published in the Reports. With such a preponderance of one sex, and with Americans' habitual consideration for women, I suppose it is felt to be a delicate subject. Mr. Siljeström, in his very able report on the educational institutions of the United States, has tabulated some figures from the New York Report of 1844 from which he draws the following conclusions, which, according to what he was able to learn, might be considered as the general rule, viz.:—

Age of teachers.

(a) That comparatively few public school teachers are under 18, or over 30, years of age:
(b) That by far the greater number are under 25 years of age: and
(c) That only a small number of teachers are continuously employed in the same school during more than one term, and that the number of those who follow the vocation of a teacher during a year or upwards is likewise but small (See p. 185, *English Translation*).

This statement refers to the condition of things which existed 20 years ago; but my own observation, combined with what I have read and was told, would lead me to similar conclusions now.

Teachers must be certificated.

the States and cities that no person shall be employed as teacher, under penalty, in most cases, of the school's forfeiting its share of the State appropriation, unless properly qualified; the amount of qualifications being ascertained by an examination, and generally attested by a certificate;* but from the complaints which are to be heard on all sides of the incompetence of a large proportion of the teachers, the examinations must often be very perfunctory, and the possession of a certificate, particularly of the lower grades, utterly untrustworthy as a guarantee.† The training institutions of the country, as yet, are far from being organized with a completeness that corresponds with other portions of the system;

But the certificate no sufficient guarantee.

Modes of certificating in Massachusetts; New York; Ohio;

* In Massachusetts, the function of examining and certificating teachers devolves upon the school committee; in the State of New York, upon the school commissioner of the district. In Ohio, a county board is formed for the purpose, whose certificates are of four grades, and good respectively for 6, 12, 18, and 24 months. From returns published in the Report, it appears that in 1864 there were throughout the State 24,895 applications for certificates from 8,553 males and 16,342 females, of which 5,553, or nearly one in four, were rejected, and 19,342 were successful. Of certificates granted, 8,807 were for six months; 7,681 for 12; 2,243 for 18; and 611 for 24. There is also in Ohio a State Board of Examiners who grant certificates which, unless revoked by the Board, are good for life, and exempt from examination before the county boards. For these certificates, male applicants pay a fee of $3, and female applicants a fee of $2, which goes to the State fund for the support of teachers' institutes. The Board was only constituted in 1864, and has only held one examination, at which 13 candidates presented themselves; all of them, I believe, being teachers of the highest ability in the State. Eleven certificates of the highest grade were issued, one of the recipients being a lady. It is hoped that this State diploma will confer dignity on the profession.

and Illinois.

In Illinois, candidates are examined by the school commissioner, or by competent persons appointed by him, in English, penmanship, arithmetic, English grammar, modern geography, and history of the United States. There are three grades of certificate; (A) valid in the county for two years; (B) valid in the county for one year; (C) valid in a given district only for six months.

Of course, in all these cases, the value of the certificate depends entirely upon the thoroughness and impartiality of the examination. "There is no feature "in our system," says the Ohio Commissioner, "so vital to its success as that "which places at the door of every school-room in the State a Board of "Examiners, to determine who is qualified to enter there as a teacher and "guide of our youth. These examiners are the sentries of our school system" (*Eleventh Report*, p. 20). In New York city, teachers are examined and certificated by the city superintendent, assisted by two inspectors; in Boston, by an examining committee. In the latter city, teachers promoted from one grade of school to another must be re-examined.

Variation in standard.

† In the first place, the standard is apt to vary. The commissioner of the second district of Madison County, New York, having stated that in the course of the year he had issued three certificates of the first grade, 27 of the second, and 122 of the third, "concludes, from reading Reports of other "commissioners as to the number of first-class certificates given, that there "must be a difference in the standards adopted; for he cannot believe that "teachers of his district are so much behind those of other counties as the "difference in the number of the higher grade certificates would seem to "indicate" (*Eleventh Report*, p. 230). Again, it is found hard to resist certain influences. Another commissioner says that he is sometimes compelled to yield to the force of circumstances, and extend licenses to some utterly incompetent candidates, that all the schools of the district may be supplied (*Ibid.* p. 288). Sometimes the trustees put a pressure upon the examiner in favour of a friend (*Ibid.* p. 319). It is found also that those who have gained certificates often "relax their efforts, and become indifferent to self-"improvement" (*Ibid.*) Statements like these are universal.

Adverse influences.

nor is their capacity for supplying teachers at all adequate to the demand. In many places, too, there exists the same kind of narrow prejudice against the employment of trained teachers that for so long a time prevailed in England and is scarcely extinct now; and the salaries are frequently so low that the services of really competent persons cannot be secured. All sorts of plans are adopted in the different States to improve the quality and increase the quantity of the teaching power, but hitherto, it must be confessed, with very limited success; and more complete appliances for training teachers is still one of the things wanting to the perfection of the American system of public schools.*

Deficiency in part made up by natural aptitude.

At the same time I must allow that the deficiency is very much less striking to the outward eye of a casual observer than would be the case under similar circumstances in England, on account of the much greater natural aptitude for the work of a teacher possessed, as it appeared to me to be, by Americans generally, and particularly by American women. They certainly have the

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Number of inexperienced teachers.

* "More than 500 persons each year," says the Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut, "begin their experience in teaching in the common schools of the State. Very few of these have had the advantage of thorough systematic training in a college or seminary. A considerable number have enjoyed for a time the benefits of the normal school; a few others are graduates of some high school or academy; but the greater part have had no special preparation, nor any school advantages, except such as are obtained in common schools. . . . They enter the school-room with no well-defined plan of the work to be accomplished; they find 40 or 50 children of different ages, diverse habits and attainments, and in their hands a variety of books to be used; but no chart to mark out their course; no guide to specify what is to be accomplished each term. Is it strange that in these circumstances many fail, not in maintaining order simply, but in almost everything which is necessary to constitute thorough and systematic training and culture, without which the school is of very little benefit" (*Connecticut Report for* 1865, p. 33. See also pp. 12, 13).

Normal Schools.

Most States, in which the common school system exists, *have* normal schools; but the number of students they supply is quite inadequate to the demand, and a large proportion do not stay long enough to complete their course and graduate, but leave after a few months' residence to take charge of schools. The course of training varies from one to two years; at Salem, Massachusetts, there is an advanced voluntary course of a year and a half more. In Massachusetts there are four normal schools, the earliest founded in 1839. In New York, complains the Superintendent, "with a population of "4,000,000, and with nearly 16,000 teachers, there is but *one* normal school, "founded in 1844, and to that has been given only a meagre support" (*Eleventh Report*, p. 41). In Connecticut there is one normal school, organized in 1850. "Michigan opened a State normal school in 1852, Rhode Island in "1854, New Jersey in 1855, Illinois in 1857, Pennsylvania one in 1858, "another in 1860, a third in 1863. Minnesota organized a normal school in "1858, which was afterwards suspended for a short time, but re-organized "with additional appropriations in 1864. Iowa established a normal depart- "ment in her State university in 1860. California organized her normal "school in 1863, Maine and Kansas theirs in 1864" (*Connecticut Report for* 1865, p. 15). In Pennsylvania it is in contemplation to establish, as soon as practicable, three more normal schools. Ohio enjoys the unenviable distinction of not maintaining a normal school, and of "not paying a dollar to train or "qualify teachers" (*Ohio, 11th Report*, p. 9). In Boston, a normal department was established in connection with the Girls' High School in 1864, the course being only one term of six months. In the winter there had been 30 students; in the summer, when I visited it, there were only 19. And yet

gift of turning what they do know to the best account; they are self-possessed, energetic, fearless; they are admirable disciplina-

this institution is expected to keep up the succession in a city which employs upwards of 500 female teachers in its schools.

Table exhibiting the supply-power of Normal Schools.

But the following table will show at a glance the ratio between the demand —or at least, the *need*—and the supply.

Name of Normal School, and date of establishment.	No. of Students received from date of establishment.	No. of Students ordinarily in training.	No. of Students graduating annually.	Have graduated since establishment.	No. of Teachers in State employed at one time.
Albany, N.Y., 1844 -	1438	300	65	—	15,807
Salem, Mass. 1853	841	85	40	361	5,476
Bridgewater „ 1840	1442	90	32	934	
Westfield „ 1839	circ. 1900	100	32	circ. 400	
Framingham „ 1839	circ. 1400	120	50	circ. 850	
Rhode Island, 1854 -	—	50	—	600	660
Connecticut, 1850 -	2,218	100	20	650	circ. 2,000
Illinois, 1857 - -	—	140	—	—	circ. 15,000

Six hundred is the number said to have "gone out" from the Rhode Island school, but I am not sure whether as "graduates," or only after a partial course; 650 are reported to be "teaching" in Connecticut, but probably nothing like that number had completed their course, or received diplomas.

Other sources of supply.

Teachers, however, are procured from other sources besides the normal schools. Many pass from the high schools, and even from the upper classes of grammar schools, direct to the charge of schools without any special training. The high schools, themselves, are frequently furnished with teachers from the different colleges and universities, and are not seldom found under the charge of graduates of Harvard or of Yale. All over the States there are large numbers of so-called "academies" incorporated and under the management of trustees, in many of which classes are formed for the special training of teachers; and there are institutions, like that of Mount Holyoke, in Massachusetts, where the number trained with more or less completeness is considerable.

Academies in State of New York.

There is a special provision in the State School Law of New York to the effect that "The Treasurer shall pay yearly, on the warrant of the "Comptroller, out of the income of the U. S. Deposit or 'Literature' Funds, "not otherwise appropriated, to the trustees of all academies selected by the "Regents of the University, the sum of $10 for every scholar, not to exceed 20 "scholars in each academy, instructed under a course prescribed by the said "regents, during at least one-third part of the academic year, in the science of "common school teaching." From the report of the Regents it appears that in 1862-3 there were 90 academies designated for this purpose, in which 1,616 pupils—421 males and 1,195 females—were instructed free of charge with this aim. But in 17 of the 90 academies the provision of the law, requiring separate instruction in common school teaching, was not complied with (*See Regents' 77th Report*, p. 305). Students, before they are admitted to the advantages of this gratuitous instruction, are required to sign a declaration of intention to teach in the common schools of the State.

New York City Normal School.

In New York City what is called the Normal School is nothing more than an assemblage of teachers every Saturday, from 9 to 1 o'clock in one of the ward school-houses, to receive instruction in the best methods of dealing with the different subjects required to be taught in the primary and grammar schools. The general direction is in the hands of one of the assistant-superintendents of schools, and the lectures are given by another assistant-superintendent and some of the masters of grammar schools. In the Manual of the Board of Education (p. 29) it is laid down that the school "shall be attended by such of "the teachers in common schools as the Board of Education by general

rians, firm without severity, patient without weakness; their manner of teaching is lively, and fertile in illustration: classes are not

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" regulations shall direct, under penalty of forfeiture of their situations as " teachers." But this absolute requirement does not appear to be insisted on, for I was informed that the attendance was voluntary. Those who do attend are chiefly teachers holding a certificate of grade B, who wish to raise it to grade A. They are exclusively females. About 500 are inscribed on the register, and the ordinary attendance is 300 or 400. The day that I attended was very wet, and there were not more than 60 present. Six classes are formed, and lectures are given on mental science, methods of teaching the different subjects prescribed by the Board of Education for primary and grammar schools, principles of discipline, mathematics, natural philosophy. I heard five or six lectures given, most of them well-arranged and clear. There appeared to be a good deal of inequality in the classes, some of the young ladies being much inferior to others both in quickness and attainments. There is nothing in the nature of a practising class attached to this school; but each teacher, coming fresh from the daily experience of her school, would easily be able to see the application both of principles and methods. My general impression of the working of the scheme was that, though it only attempted to deal with about one-fourth of the teachers of the city, it was conducted upon a sound plan, and must be producing beneficial results.

Normal School in Chicago.

In Chicago, the normal school is a department of the high school in which, over and above the ordinary teaching of a high school, instruction is given in "methods." There are about 60 students in it, who are admitted by examination. The course is two years, and the age of admission is sixteen. I heard a part of the examination for admission, for which the candidates—though I must confess the ordeal was enough to make them feel a little nervous—did not seem to be particularly well prepared.

Teachers' conferences.

They have, also, two other plans in Chicago for improving teachers, which are said to answer well. For an hour in the afternoon of the third Friday of every month the teachers of each district school assemble together under their principal to consult upon the special interests of their school. And on the morning of the second Saturday of each month a collective conference is held of all the teachers of the city at the high school under the city superintendent for instruction on points of general scholastic interest. This is obligatory, and a record of attendance is kept, though there is no penalty for absence. The first hour is spent in hearing a lecture or essay; for the remainder of the time the teachers break up into sections, and consider subjects proper to their several grades. Classes of children are brought in from the district schools to aid in the practical illustration of the points discussed. The illustrations are given by those who are considered the best teachers, who introduce their own classes. The children are said to be pleased to come, and the whole arrangement is that of a "mutual improvement society." The superintendent considers it to be working well.

Teachers' institutes.

Throughout the States great reliance is placed on what are called "teachers' institutes"—that is, local gatherings of teachers, varying in number from 50 to 200—"the most good being accomplished," Mr. Boutwell thinks, "when "the attendance is between 80 and 150"—who remain in session from 10 days to a fortnight, generally taken out of either the spring or autumn vacation, and occupy themselves in listening to lectures and taking part in discussions on subjects connected with their professional duties. In Massachusetts a sum not exceeding £3,000 per annum is set apart out of the school fund to meet their expenses; no single institute, however, being entitled to an appropriation exceeding £350. In Ohio the fund raised by the fees on certificates is applied to their maintenance. In Illinois the county Board of Supervisors are authorized to make appropriations out of the county treasury for their support whenever they shall consider the interests of the schools and the public good can be thereby promoted (*School Laws*, s. 71). The importance attached to them in the State of New York may be estimated from the provision of law which, having fixed the annual school term at 28 weeks of five days each, declares, that "a deficiency *not exceeding three weeks* caused by a

likely to fall asleep in their hands. They are proud of their position, and fired with a laudable ambition to maintain the credit of

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" teachers' attendance upon an institute within the county shall be excused" (*School Law*, Title iii, Art. i, s. 7). In 1864 eight institutes were held in Massachusetts attended by 1,228 teachers. Their popularity is attested by the statement of the Secretary that never before were "the invitations more " earnest, the receptions more cordial, or the hospitality more bountiful;" never before was there "manifested a deeper interest in the exercises both by " teachers and the citizens generally" (*Mass. 28th Report*, p. 62).

Estimate of their value.

The Rhode Island Commissioner gives the following estimate of their value: " It is unnecessary to speak of the inestimable value of these teachers' gather- " ings in engendering and keeping alive a spirit of educational interest and " enthusiasm. . . . *The best teachers are always there*, they cannot afford " to be away. They communicate and receive good. The work of education " is laborious, exhausting, complex, and ever changing. New truths, and " new and improved methods of communicating truth, are continually pre- " sented, and the teacher who is not awake to this will some day wonder that " he has slept so long. . . . Those who teach most diligently, most faith- " fully, and most successfully, feel most the need of these things; and it is " evidence against a teacher's qualifications that he is indifferent to educational " meetings" (*19th Report*, p. 37).

Their special difficulties.

It is a fair inference from the remark that "the best teachers are always " there," that the worst teachers, those who most need stimulus and improvement, are not reached by institutes. In Ohio the difficulty is to find men " thoroughly competent to conduct" them (*11th Report*, p. 9.) In fact, with the low salaries paid to inferior teachers, it is not easy to see how they could afford the expense of attending. "Many teachers," says the New York Superintendent, "receive salaries so small that they have been obliged to exer- " cise the most rigid economy, even to denying themselves a participation in " freely offered and much-needed instruction" (*Eleventh Report*, p. 35).

Scale on which they are held in New York.

Institutes are maintained on a grand scale in the State of New York. In 1864 they were held in 54 districts for periods varying from one to three weeks, and attended by 7,524 teachers, each attending on the average about eight days. Several thoroughly qualified instructors were employed by the Superintendent, and devoted their entire time to the work during the autumn months. While they confined themselves principally "to a theoretical and practical " illustration of the principles of the elementary branches usually taught in " the schools, and to the approved methods of teaching them," we are also told that "the proper mode of training schools in healthful physical exercise, " of governing and classifying them, and of awakening a love of knowledge " and virtue received special attention." The Superintendent's opinion of their influence is expressed as follows: "These institutes, whatever their imperfec- " tions, have this advantage, that, at a comparatively small expense, they " afford valuable instruction to persons who give earnest of their interest in " the vocation of teaching, and who immediately carry back the information " thus derived into the schools of all parts of the State; and I am gratified in " being able to report that their importance in the successful operation of our school " system is unquestionable. *Until other agencies for the preparation of teachers " shall have been greatly increased in numbers*, institutes will be indispensable; " and it is suggested that the appropriation made for their support should be " be commensurate with their necessities" (*Eleventh Report*, p. 35). The cost of institutes to the State in 1864 was $9,991, at an average expense per teacher in attendance (7,524) of $1.32. Ten years before the attendance was only 1,100, and the State appropriation only $1,100.

Resemble our teachers' harvest meetings.

The American institute, which has thus been described, is not very unlike the "Teachers' Harvest Meeting," which, a few years ago, was a popular institution in England, though from some cause or other it seems to have fallen into desuetude. I fancy that we, with our practical notions, attach much less value than do the Americans to lectures as vehicles of actual instruction. With them the lecture is quite an educational influence, as I shall have a more proper place for noticing farther on. On the other hand, the American train-

their school; a little too anxious, perhaps, to parade its best side and screen its defects; a little too sensitive of blame, a little too greedy of praise; but still, as I judged them from the samples which I saw, and in spite of numerous instances to the contrary which I read of but did not see, a very fine and capable body of workers in a noble cause. The high public spirit that animates the mass may be estimated from one fact alone already mentioned. In the single State of Pennsylvania the number of male teachers who entered the army in the recent war was upwards of 3,000, and the number who volunteered was to the number who were drafted in the ratio of eight to one.* And the flame of patriotism, though it may take another form, burns quite as brightly in the breasts of American women as in the breasts of American men. Apart from the question of adequate training, I know not the country in which the natural material out of which to shape the very best of teachers is produced in such abundance as in the United States. That, with the shaping process so very imperfectly performed, the results are what they are, is sufficient proof of the quality of the material.

Teachers' Salaries.

The salaries of these teachers are in no case, measured by our English standard, high; and in many cases they are miserably low. I have already mentioned that the highest salary, so far as I am aware, paid to any school functionary in the United States is that paid to the principal of the Free Academy in New York, which is $4,000, or at the present value of the dollar, about 650*l.* a year.† The lowest salaries of female teachers in rural

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ing system seems deficient in the element of practical demonstration. With the exception of that at Boston, none of the Massachusetts normal schools has a practising school, or, as the Americans call it, "an experimental school," attached to it, which, in our system, is considered indispensable. Hence, though the superiority of normal students as teachers is generally admitted, the knowledge with which they start in their profession is chiefly theoretical, and they may, and often do, break down in their crude attempts to apply it to practice. They are like a young surgeon who has studied anatomy in books, but has never witnessed a dissection nor performed an operation. "The State "normal school," says a New York school commissioner, "is a great benefit "as far as it goes. But it is only as a drop in the great ocean. The mass of "our teachers will never become what they should be with only one normal "school for training them. Teachers' institutes are fine things in their way, "and so are teachers' classes in academies; but they are not all, nor nearly "all, we want for the education of our teachers" (*Eleventh Report*, p. 211).

Deficiency of the practical element in the American system of training.

Its admitted inadequacy.

When all is said and done, the means employed to secure qualified teachers in sufficient numbers, evidently are, and are admitted to be, inadequate to the end.

* *Pennsylvania Report for* 1864, p. 43.

† The normal value of the dollar is 4*s.* 2*d.*, or, $4.84=1*l.* Just now, with gold ranging from 40 to 50 premium, it is not worth more than 3*s.* 0*d.* or 3*s.* 3*d.*, or from $6.50 to $6.75=1*l.* Salaries have been very generally raised in view of this state of things. I do not know, if prices get to their ordinary level, whether they would be reduced again. The salary of the Principal of the Free Academy has recently been raised from $3,000 to $4,000. Teachers have to provide their own residences.

Value of the dollar.

The school reports of every State touch sharply and sympathizingly on the hardships suffered by teachers in this regard of salaries. I extract the following pertinent passage from the *Ohio 11th Report*, p. 13:

General complaints of the lowness of salaries.

"Supposing the tax duplicate (*i.e.*, the assessment) to remain about the

"Boarding round."

schools frequently do not exceed eight or 10 dollars a month, exclusive of board; the teacher in these cases, being "boarded round," as the phrase is, at the houses of the farmers, where, I am told, she is treated with great respect, and has the best room in the house assigned for her occupation, and is an occasion to the good housewife for producing her daintiest fare. The value of this board must be reckoned at from two to four dollars a week,

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same, the aggregate school receipts for the present school year will be only 7 per cent. greater than the receipts of 1863-4, and they will be half of one per cent. less than the receipts of 1860-1. What other department of business will be conducted this year with the same nominal expenses as in 1860, or with an increase of only 7 per cent. over the expenses of last year! Moreover, it must not be forgotten, that these reported rates are only nominal. Let the local school tax of the State be estimated by the gold standard, or, if this be objected to, by the money value of the products of our farms and factories, and *it is reduced fully one-half*. The farmer pays his school tax with less than one-half, I might say one-third, as many bushels of wheat or corn, or pounds of pork, wool, butter, and cheese, as it required before the war. The same is true of the manufacturer, taking his products as the measure of his school support, and also of persons engaged in all leading industrial pursuits. The school tax of the State has never before rested so lightly on the people. At the same time, it must be confessed, that these facts and figures are not very full of promise that even-handed justice is in store for the self-sacrificing, half-paid teachers of our schools; nor do they indicate that the rapid withdrawal of the more enterprising from the profession, which is now crippling the schools, will speedily be checked."

Table showing average rate of salaries.

The following Table of the average monthly salary of male and female teachers in different States will show the actual state of things, as far as this can ever be done by an average; but, in drawing conclusions, it must be remembered that city salaries and high school salaries are included in the computation, and that an "average" is never so fallacious as when there is a wide disparity between the extremes. It perhaps gives a far truer view to say that the *highest* salaries in the best schools range, for males from $100 to 150$ a month—a few Principals' salaries may be even higher—for females, from $50 to $60, the *lowest* salaries in the worst schools ranging meanwhile, for males from $20 to $30 a month, for females from $15 to $25.

State.	Average Monthly Salary, including Board.		Increase on last year.	
	Of Males.	Of Females.	Males.	Females.
	$	$	$	$
Massachusetts - -	46.78	19.37	1.91	0.47
New Hampshire - -	26.90	15.05	—	—
Connecticut - - -	33.00	18.00	—	—
Ohio, Com. Schools -	28.25	17.95	—	—
,, High Schools -	62.87	34.81	—	—
Pennsylvania - -	25.42	20.16	1.48	1.60

In a country township which I visited in Connecticut—rather above the average in wealth and liberality, I imagine—I found the highest salary paid in the previous year was $42 a month to a male, the lowest, $16 a month to a female. In another rural district, in Massachusetts, also well to do, the mistress of the grammar department was receiving $25 a month, the teacher of the primary department $17.

Table showing rate of salaries

The succeeding Table exhibits the phenomena of some of the leading cities, in which, generally, a fixed scale is adopted, often, as at Boston and Chicago,

according to its quality; but there must be countless cases in which the whole amount of a female teacher's salary, board included, does not exceed 16 dollars (about 50*s.* a month), and that not secured for a longer period than a single term of three or four

rising by a regular graduation of 50 to 100 dollars, according to length of service, till a maximum is attained.

in certain cities.

Name of City.	High School.			Grammar Schools.			Primary Schools.		
	Principal.	Vice-Principal.	Assistants.	Principal.	Vice-Principal.	Assistants.	Principal.	Vice-Principal.	Assistants.
	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
New York, Boys	4,000	3,500	12 at 3,000 3 at 1,750 5 at 1,500 4 at 1,250	1,500	1,200	800	675	500	300
„ Girls	—	—	—	800	600	400	—	—	—
Boston, Boys	2,600	1,800	1,400	1,800	1,400	1,000	—	—	—
„ Girls	2,600	700	600	—	600	400	—	—	400
Chicago	2,000	—	—	1,500	—	400	—	—	300
Baltimore, Boys	1,800	1,600	1,400	1,300	500	350	500	—	300
„ Girls	1,500	800	600	700	500	350	—	—	—
Providence	1,600	1,200	400 to 900	1,100	—	350	350	—	300
St. Louis	2,500	1,800	900 to 1,500	1,500	—	500	650	—	450
Cincinnati	—	—	—	1,320	800	300 to 600	1,200	800	300 to 600
Philadelphia, (Boys)	2,200	1,800	1,200 to 1,600	1,500	—	450	700	—	400
„ Girls	1,800	—	600	750	—	300 to 450	400	—	300

Remarks on the Table.

It was not very easy to construct this Table, owing to the different organizations and nomenclatures which prevail in the schools. The rates given in New York are the *maxima* fixed by the Board of Education; salaries are actually paid, except in the case of the Free Academy, according to the number of children in attendance at each school. The same principle determines the number of teachers employed. In Boston, the *commencing* salary is the one given, which increases by $50 or $100 a year to a maximum of $200 or $300 above the figures given in the table. A similar rule obtains in Chicago. It was difficult also to distinguish between male and female teachers in the Table; but I do not remember an instance of any female teacher's salary exceeding $800, or about 120*l.* a year; and, speaking generally, all the lower figures indicate the salaries of mistresses, the cities, as we have already seen, drawing by far the larger proportion of their teachers from the female sex. In Boston all Principals are males. In one or two instances in the Reports, averages are struck: thus, in St. Louis the average salary of male teachers is $1,522; of females $582; in Detroit, of males $926; of females $365. This is enough to illustrate the wide variations that prevail.

Extract from Philadelphia Report.

I close this note with a striking extract from the Report of the Board of Controllers of the Schools of Philadelphia (p. 31). "Let us look at the salaries of "teachers, and make comparisons. We have in our schools about 1,300 "female teachers, cultivated and intelligent ladies, who follow the profession "of teaching after years of study. We demand and receive the highest order "of talent, and what do we pay them? About 800 receive 80 cents a day; "about 200 receive a dollar a day; about 200 receive a dollar and a quarter a "day; about 100 receive less than two dollars a day. In other words, there "are upwards of a thousand teachers upon each of whom is lavished per diem "a sum scarcely equal to the amount paid to the washerwoman, and about "800 of these obtain only two-thirds of a washerwoman's wages. A large "proportion of the teachers receive less than the janitress who sweeps the "school-house." At the same time, it may be remarked that washerwomen, at least those employed by the hotels, charge exorbitantly for their work. I sometimes paid two dollars, and the ordinary charge was a dollar and a half, for a dozen articles. The amount of ladies' laundress' bills is said to be frightful.

months' duration, and suspended during vacations; and into this calculation is to be taken the fact that, at the present moment, the ordinary necessaries of life, food and clothing, are at least 50 per cent. dearer than they are in England.* The salaries of teachers in cities are certainly higher, and their tenure of office more permanent; but even there each appointment is only considered to be made for a year, and although the principals and superior officers of the schools generally retain their positions from year to year, there are great and frequent changes in the lower departments.

Low salaries lead to change of teachers.

Indeed, it is the low range of salaries, acting powerfully as a motive upon the general restlessness of the American temperament, which produces those rapid and continual changes in the teaching staff of the schools, the effects of which are so deeply and unanimously deplored. It is thought a great thing to retain the same teacher in the same school for a whole year.† A calculation is made that "at least one-fourth of the money expended "on the schools is thus wasted." ‡ The quietness and success that has marked a school year is attributed chiefly "to the employment of the same teachers, who had taught for some time in "the township before."§ To find a body of teachers who intend to "make teaching their business for several years" excites surprise.‖ And yet it is felt and acknowledged that "a teacher is worth twice "as much the second term as during the first."¶ "Frequent "change of teachers" is classed with their "incompetence," and the "irregular attendance" of scholars as the three great "hin-"drances to the successful prosecution of the schools."**

Sample of teacher's expenditure.

* The School Committee of Swampscott, Massachusetts, give an estimate, taken from an actual instance, of a female teacher's annual expenditure, as they deem it, on a moderate scale (*Massachusetts* 28th *Report, Appendix* p. 45).

Board, 45 weeks at $2.75 a week	$123.75
Washing, at 50 cents a dozen	13.00
Fire and lights	8.00
Clothing $55; boots and shoes $13; bonnets $13	81.00
Books, lectures, and stationery $5; pew rent $3	8.00
Travelling expenses $10; incidentals $6.25	16.25
	$250.00

Many teachers, however, must live at less than half this cost.

† "One improvement is greater permanency in our teachers. *Nearly one* "*half of our schools* have been taught by the same teacher through the year" (*Mass.* 28th *Report,* App. p. 126).

‡ *Ibid.* p. 153.

§ *Ibid.* p. 198.

‖ *Connecticut Report for* 1865, p. 75.

¶ *Connecticut Report for* 1865, p. 81.

The evil very prevalent in Connecticut.

** *Ibid.* p. 83. The evil seems to reach to a great height in Connecticut. "Not a single district," says one Report, "has retained its teacher for two successive terms" (*Ibid.* p. 72). "We have employed," echoes another, "in our sixteen schools during the year 31 different teachers, and only one single teacher has been employed in the same school through the year" (*Ibid.* p. 75). And again, "Few teachers have been employed in our schools during the whole year, only one continuing two terms in the same school" (*Ibid.* p. 80).

The causes of the evil are partly to be found in the habit—which however, is on the decrease—of employing male teachers in the winter and females in the summer; but more frequently in false notions of economy,* or vicious practices of nepotism: † the two latter, from one's knowledge of human nature one may venture to affirm, sources of mischief not very easy to reach nor very likely to be cured. Causes of the evil.

The duties of teachers are large and varied, and the responsibility of principals of schools, whose function is rather superintendence than teaching, is considerable. The system of Cincinnati appears to be as perfectly organized as any other, and is quoted with high approval by Mr. Wells of Chicago, one of the most experienced practical educators in America, as having contributed more than anything else to the remarkable improvement of the Cincinnati schools.‡ Under this system the Principal, as local superintendent, is responsible for the observance and enforcement of the rules and regulations of the Board of Education for the guidance and direction of teachers and the government of schools, and is invested with authority to carry them into effect. He classifies the pupils in the different grades; announces to the Duties of teachers. The system of Cincinnati. Duties of the Principal.

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* "The employment of new and especially of inexperienced teachers, and of constantly changing them from term to term, which is caused in part by a desire to get teachers that are cheap, is operating very much to the disadvantage of our schools" (*Ibid.* p. 81).

† "Our schools suffer materially from the frequent change of teachers. A new committee is elected who will have some friend or relation to put into the school, and the experienced teacher must seek employment elsewhere (*Ibid.* p. 73).

‡ *Tenth Annual Report of Chicago Schools*, 1864, p. 42. In New York, the organization of each department is complete in itself; and in one building, where there might be three departments, *ex. gr.* a mixed primary, a boys' grammar, and a girls' grammar, department—as in School No. 14—there would be three Principals, one male and two female, with independent powers. Organization in New York.

In Boston all the Primary Schools are organically connected with the grammar school of their district, and the Principal of the latter is charged with the superintendence of them. That no similar provision for the overlooking of the young female teachers of the primary schools by the experienced principals of the grammar schools exists in Philadelphia is a matter of regret to the warmest friends of education there, and may partly account for the asserted inferior condition of the lower grade of schools in that city. Boston organization.

All grammar school principals in Boston are males: even the principal of the girls' high school. There is no faith in Boston in *female* principals. Boston teachers are ranged in an eight-fold gradation of precedence: I. Masters = principals; 2. Sub-masters = vice-principals; 3. Ushers; 4. Head-assistants; 5. Assistants; 5. Primary school-teachers; 7. Music teachers; 8. Sewing teachers. It is proposed to abandon the name of usher, as having undignified associations connected with it. "There is something in a name," says the Superintendent, "and there is no propriety in applying the antiquated, "and now, with us, unmeaning title of usher to gentlemen whose acquirements "and position place them on an equality with the professors in our colleges" (*Boston Report for* 1864, p. 184). Masters, sub-masters, and ushers are males; the rest, unless it be the music teachers, are all females. The five first-named are found exclusively in the high and grammar schools. Their distribution depends on the composition of the school, whether for boys only, for girls only, or mixed. The rates of salary for the different grades are very different. The scale is given in the *Report for* 1864, p. 244.

different departments the hour for beginning and closing school, for the recitations and for recess; he has to see to the safe keeping and protection of the house, furniture, apparatus, fences, &c., and to maintain the strictest cleanliness in the school and outhouses; he provides for the cleaning, and for the lighting and maintaining fires of the schools by the employment of a janitor; he keeps the annual register of attendance; he must devote at least one hour per day for every 200 pupils in average daily attendance, to the supervision of his assistants and direction of the general work of the school; he is to keep the pupils equally distributed and properly classified; to see that they are constantly and profitably employed, to report cases of absence to parents, once at least each school month to satisfy himself, by examination, of the thorough progress of each class in all the departments of the school, and to report to the Superintendent and to the local trustees, if there be any just cause to doubt the qualifications of any teacher; and at the close of each school month he is to transmit to the clerk of the board all bills for teachers' salaries, together with such additional information as the board may from time to time require, or as he may think it important to communicate; he is further to make and preserve a journal of the more important matters and events occurring in his school, which shall be subject to the inspection of the local trustees and Superintendent, and must be transmitted to his successor.*

Assistant teachers.

Assistant-teachers are required to be present in their respective rooms and to report themselves to the principal 15 minutes before the opening of the school in the morning, and five minutes before its opening in the afternoon, under penalty of a fine in case of failure. It is their duty "to make themselves acquainted with the rules prescribed by the board, and to enforce the same, so far as they relate to their several departments; to preserve perfect order in their respective rooms, watch over the morals of their pupils, restrain all improper speech and conduct, and report all cases of gross misconduct or immorality to the Principal for his counsel and direction; to endeavour to gain, by courteous deportment, the influence and co-operation of parents in sustaining the teacher's authority and government over the children, and so far as practicable, to govern their pupils by the moral influence of kindness, and by appeals to the nobler principles of their nature."†

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* *See Cincinnati 28th Annual Report,* pp. 98-9. The "journal" which the principal is required to keep is equivalent to the "log-book" of our Revised Code.

Miscellaneous Regulations.

† *Ibid.* p. 96. In the regulations of the City of Providence, R.I., teachers are required, "when deemed necessary, to extend their supervision to pupils going to, and returning from, school." It is not, however, very easy to see how this can be done, and generally the responsibility of the teacher is supposed to terminate at the school-door, or at most to be limited to its immediate neighbourhood. By the same regulations teachers are peremptorily forbidden to receive any present or gift from any of the classes under their charge at any time.

The Boston rules are less stringent. "Instructors shall not become the recipients during term time, and only from a graduating class at any other time, of any present-money or other property from the pupils." At

In the cities, the inspection and supervision of the schools by the local authorities is, or at least ought to be, very thorough and very constant; in the country, upon this as upon so many other points connected with their management, no doubt greater laxity prevails. Yet, even there, recurrent visits at certain or uncertain intervals on the part of the trustees, or of somebody deputed to discharge this duty for them, are provided for by law; and in the districts into which I penetrated I found they were generally paid—whether as frequently as required, or, when paid, whether as effective as would be desirable, I cannot undertake, from my own observation, to say. The reports which notice them do not leave upon the mind a very high impression of their value.* Visitation of Schools. In the country.

In cities, and where the system of management is organized under a Superintendent, the state of affairs is very different. The chief part of the work is done by the Superintendent, but he is stimulated or checked by the collateral activity and watchfulness of other officers. Thus, for example, in Boston each district committee, within 10 days after its appointment, divides itself into a suitable number of sub-committees for the primary schools in its district. These sub-committees are to visit the primary schools assigned to each once a month, and to examine them quarterly, and to report in writing their condition and progress to the chairman of the district committee at least a week previous to each quarterly meeting of the Board. Further, the district committee is to visit the grammar school of its district not less than once a month, without notice to the instructors,† and must In cities, particularly in Boston.

Boston, "no subscription or contribution for any purpose whatever may be "introduced into any public school." In New York I met with cases of subscriptions for an organ for the school-room, for the Sanitary Commission's funds for the relief of the army, and for other objects. In almost all the cities teachers are forbidden to have private pupils before 6 o'clock p.m., except on Wednesday and Saturday afternoons; and in Boston they are interdicted from engaging "as editor of a newspaper, or of any religious or political periodical."

* "The office of trustee being one of much work for little pay, but few trustees discharge their duty in all respects as faithfully as the wants of the school demand. Some plead incompetency, or an ignorance of their duty, as an excuse for not doing it; others frankly confess that they cannot afford to devote the amount of time and labour necessary to a prompt and proper discharge of their duty for no reward." (*N.Y. Eleventh Report*, p. 313.) Slackness of trustees.

In the Ohio report, the returns of the local officers to the State department are almost without exception described as "meagre," "insufficient," "imperfect," "unreliable." In one case, in New York, a still graver charge is made, and supported by what looks like proper proof. "In the accuracy of the "statistical reports," says a commissioner, "I have little or no confidence. "Every trustee is well aware that upon his report the public money is to be "granted or withheld. He knows, too, just what kind of report will enable "him to effect his purpose. Hence a statement which shall accomplish the "desired result is given oftentimes at the expense of truth and justice." (*Eleventh Report*, p. 305.) It is suggested elsewhere, as a remedy for flagrant cases of dishonesty of this kind, that trustees shall be required to verify their returns on oath. In many instances teachers are sworn to the truth of their returns.

† Such also is the habit of the Superintendent. "By visiting the schools "without notice, and with as little ceremony as may be, I am the better able "to see them in their normal condition, without the excitement and special "preparation which necessarily precede formal and expected visits."—*Report for* 1864, p. 102. Visits without notice.

examine it quarterly, and make a report in writing, both as to the condition of the school in respect of instruction and discipline, and as to the condition of the premises. In particular, they are to state in their report whether the rule relating to the infliction of corporal punishment has been complied with, and are to observe whether any children are enjoying the privileges of the school who do not reside in the city.*

Discipline and punishment.

Boston rule.

* See *Rules and Regulations of the Board of Education*, pp. 16–17. The Boston rule on the subject of corporal punishment is as follows:—"All "instructors shall aim at such discipline in their schools as would be exercised "by a kind, judicious parent in his family, shall avoid corporal punishment in "all cases where good order can be preserved by milder measures, and in no "case shall resort be had to confinement in a closet or wardrobe, or to other "cruel or unusual punishment as a mode of discipline. It shall be the duty "of the several masters and teachers in the public schools, at the close of each "month, to make in writing, to the chairman of their district committees, a "report of all cases in which corporal punishment has been inflicted, which "report shall state the name of the pupil, the amount of punishment, and the "reason for its infliction. . . . Corporal punishment shall be inflicted only "after the nature of the offence has been fully explained to the scholar, and "shall be restricted to blows on the hand with a rattan, except in cases where "a pupil refuses to submit to such punishment. Corporal punishment shall "not be inflicted on a girl in a grammar school without the consent and "approval of the master (*i.e.* the principal), which in each individual case "must be first obtained."—(*Ibid.*, p. 32.)

Sensitiveness about corporal punishment.

This rule expresses the general feeling in America about corporal punishment. How to deal effectively with intractable pupils is a great difficulty to teachers in American schools, owing to the excessive sensitiveness of parents. While I was at Boston there was great excitement in reference to the discipline of the Latin High School upon this point, and a "remonstrance" had been addressed to the Board of Education calling for the removal of the master, on the ground, among other alleged reasons, that he appeared "to be actuated "more by a desire to gratify anger than to secure reform in administering "punishment." A committee was appointed to investigate the charges, and the result of their inquiry was the complete exculpation of the master from every allegation that had been brought against him. I was informed in Philadelphia that corporal punishment, though not formally abolished, had been practically abandoned in the schools without any detriment to discipline.

It has been discontinued in Philadelphia.

When I told American educators of the form in which corporal punishment is administered in our public schools, they lifted up their eyes in amazement that either parents or boys could be found to brook such indignity. I imagine that we are the only nation under heaven who retain the birch and its accompaniments as an instrument of discipline. The time, perhaps, will come when we too shall discover that something less barbarous and as effective may with safety be substituted for it. The Boston law does not say what is to be done to the boy who refuses to be rattanned; we may depend, however, upon it that he is not birched. The idea of this would be as intolerable to an American as to a Frenchman.

Punishments at New York Free Academy.

The punishments allowed to be inflicted at the N.Y. Free Academy, where the age of the scholars ranges from 14 to 20, are the following, rising in an ascending scale:—"Demerit marks; private admonition; admonition by the "principal, in the presence of the section and of the instructor, in the recita-"tion-room; suspension by direction of the principal; public admonition by "the principal in presence of all the students at roll-call; final admonition by "the principal in a meeting of the faculty; and dismission for misconduct, to "be directed by a vote of the faculty. A 'book of discipline' is kept in which "each punishment is recorded."—*New York Manual*, p. 157.

"Unusual punishments"

American punishments, however, cannot wholly escape the difficulty that has been experienced in other places where corporal punishment has been abolished or restrained. In spite of the prohibition of "cruel and unusual punishments," there are, it seems, teachers in Boston "who do not make much use of the "rod, and so record few or no cases of corporal punishment, but resort to other

In New York city, according to the account I received from Mr. Randall, the Superintendent, the inspection and examination of the schools is very thorough. The duty occupies him and four assistants five days in the week for eight months in the year, the schools being in session about ten. Each class and each individual scholar in the class is examined orally, marked, and graded. A boys' school of 500 scholars would occupy two inspectors for four days of six hours each. I was present at some of these examinations. They evidently were regarded as serious matters both by teachers and scholars, and I have no doubt they help to keep all parties concerned in them up to their work; but the questions and answers given struck me as a little too mechanical, running along the groove of the text-books, and hardly ever diverging even from the phraseology. They seemed, therefore, to touch the memory chiefly, the faculty which is rather too exclusively, or at least too prominently, cultivated in American schools. and New York.

In some schools, as at Chicago and Providence, I found examinations largely conducted in writing. I glanced over some of the papers, which appeared to be carefully done, but still not without traces of this habit of "memorizing," which, as everybody knows, when too absolutely relied on, will not save an exercise from serious occasional blunders. As far as my judgment goes, all these examinations need to be freer, dealing more with real knowledge and less with conventional phraseology, and more completely emancipated from the fear of text books and the limitations of routine. It is a miserable thing that students who are supposed to be acquainted with a subject should be able to look at it only from one side, and express their knowledge in no more than one prescribed memorized form of words.* Examinations apt to be too mechanical.

"modes of punishment which are quite as objectionable, such as shutting up "children in closets"—though absolutely forbidden—"plastering up their mouths,"—"unusual," certainly, if not "cruel,"—"decorating their heads "with the dunce's cap, placing upon them some badge of disgrace, or requiring "them to stand in their chairs." Some wise hints and cautions are given by the Superintendent in relation to such practices.—*Report for* 1864, p. 124.

* At Philadelphia there was put into my hands the report of a committee appointed to investigate certain charges which had been preferred, chiefly by teachers of grammar schools, against the Principal of the Girls' High and Normal School, principally with reference to questions set at the admission examinations. Many of the questions instanced in the report certainly are objectionable, and some are silly. But what struck me was that the objections to them turn chiefly on two points: either (1) that "the question is out of limits," or (2) that "the answer is not in the text books." Thus, certain words are given to be defined, a prominent exercise in American schools, and an objection is raised to the list, because the words, with the exception of three, are not to be found in the "Scholars' Companion" within the established limits. An objection is taken to a question in interest, it being shown that the arithmetic used in the schools contained only two rules in banking, and under neither the principle required for the solution of this problem, which proves the imperfection of the text-book. The question, "Why does the sun never set on the British dominions," notwithstanding Daniel Webster's eloquent explanation, is excepted to, not by reason of its difficulty, but because it is not legitimate, "lying out of the limits." Examples also are given of inappropriate questions—"When, where, and by whom was "'Yankee Doodle' written?" "Was Washington ever wounded? If so, "when and where?" "Decline 'tailor's goose.'" It appears that the Principa Some examination questions at Philadelphia.

Repute and social position of teachers.

As to the character and repute of the teacher's profession in America, it certainly stands very high. I do not suppose that there are any teachers of common schools or of high schools in America who mix as freely in the highest class of society as do the masters of the great public schools among ourselves; but that is chiefly owing to the slenderness of their income not enabling them to afford to do so. And, on the other hand, the teacher of the humblest district school occupies a far higher social position than the teacher of an elementary school in England. Opinion and sentiment upon a matter of this kind are formed in the two countries by two entirely different influences. To the credit of the Americans, it must be said that, though greedy as others of money for purposes of self-indulgence and display, they have not yet learnt—I hope they are not even getting to learn—to put a social ban upon a man because of his birth, or to despise him because of his poverty. As to birth, they set no store at all upon that; and as to poverty, they may pity it, but they do not despise it.* I have already mentioned how teachers who are "boarded round" in a country district are treated in the families with whom they take up their temporary abode. I heard of a case in which the richest man in the township allowed his daughter to teach in the district school for two years, because he thought it would do her good by making her realize the comfort of depending upon her own

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did not prepare the questions, though he was responsible for them, and the result of the committee's investigation was that he resigned his situation.

Examinations closely watched.

Whatever defects there may be in the mode of these examinations, they are, at least, criticised by keen and jealous eyes, and any attempt at partiality, or any failure in perspicuity, is at once detected and exposed; of course, travelling "out of the limits," if carried to an unreasonable extent, would be a capital fault in an examiner; but it seems to me absurd to limit the words, of which definitions may be asked, to a few pages of a text-book prescribed for use in the schools. I shall print, in an appendix, some samples of examination papers. In judging of the difficulty of the questions, and of the amount of knowledge required to answer them, this constant reference to "limits" and to "text books" must be borne in mind. I thought it one of the chief merits of the method of instruction pursued at Westfield Normal School, Massachusetts, that this mechanical reliance on text books was discouraged, and students were taught to illustrate and enlarge their knowledge of a subject from any source of information within their reach.

* "Le germe même de l'aristocratie ne fut jamais deposé dans la Nouvelle Angleterre. On ne put jamais y fonder que des influences intellectuelles." *De Tocqueville*, i. p. 56. "Du moment où, d'une part, le travail semble à tous "les citoyens une necessité honorable de la condition humaine, et où, de l'autre, "le travail est toujours visiblement fait, en tout ou en partie, par la considér-"ation du salaire, l'immense espace qui séparait les différentes professions dans "les sociétés aristocratiques disparaît. Si elles ne sont pas toutes pareilles, elles "ont du moins un trait semblable. . . Ceci sert à expliquer les opinions que "les Américains entretiennent relativement aux diverses professions. . . Aux "États-Unis, les professions sont plus ou moins pénibles, plus ou moins lucra-"tives; mais elles ne sont jamais ni hautes ni basses. Toute profession honnête "est honorable." *Ibid.* ii. 171–2. A fine saying of Daniel Webster's will illustrate the American sentiment: "It did not happen to *me* to be born in a "log cabin, but my brothers and sisters were. A man who is not ashamed of "himself, needs not to be ashamed of his original condition." So of old at Athens: "τὸ πένεσθαι οὐχ ὁμολογεῖν τινὶ αἰσχρὸν, ἀλλὰ μὴ διαφένγειν ἔργῳ αἴσχιον." *Pericles apud Thucyd.* ii. 40.

exertions. All hangs upon the teacher's personal character and qualifications; as far as his profession is concerned, he is on a level with anybody. I was occasionally invited to visit teachers at their homes. They appeared to me to live in a sort of cheerful and refined frugality; able to exercise a hearty, but inexpensive hospitality; often relieving the monotony of daily toil by the cultivation of some recreative but not uncongenial study or accomplishment—a social position not altogether dissimilar to that so happily enjoyed by many an English clergyman. There was a healthiness in all this which one could not but appreciate and admire.*

Internal organization of Schools.

The next point to be considered, after the administration of the schools, is their internal organization; and here I cannot do better than follow the order of inquiry marked out for me by my instructions. As I consider that what the commissioners will most care to know is how the system works in its best developments, I shall draw my picture chiefly from the better schools and more perfect instances, referring the reader to a note for marked departures from, or deteriorations of, the type.

Classified and unclassified schools.

Americans commonly divide their schools into classified and unclassified, graded and ungraded, schools. The unclassified school is one in which the organization is of the character that we call in England "higgledy-piggledy;" and, of course, is a type that is only found in the most backward rural districts.† The classified

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Tone of the teachers' meeting at Cincinnati.

* I was very much prepossessed with the appearance and tone of the great body of Ohio teachers—four or five hundred in number—whom I saw assembled at Cincinnati. In spite of a little self-assertiveness which characterized some, there was an energy and an evidence of purpose in most which was very observable. An excellent lady, wife of a professor in one of the Ohio universities, to whom I was introduced, expressed a hope that I would not judge of the general tone of American teachers—by what I saw there; she was afraid I might deem it frivolous and deficient in earnestness. The fact is, there were intermissions of business now and then of which the younger teachers of either sex took advantage for harmless purposes of their own; and a little lively chattering and chittering took the place, for the moment, of serious discussions and elaborated addresses. I must say that I enjoyed the meeting very much; and though a stranger only sees the surface of things on such occasions, I saw nothing either to excite suspicion or to provoke criticism. The meeting lasted, if I remember rightly, for three days, and closed with a pic-nic, which unfortunately I could not attend.

The greatest hospitality is exercised on these occasions. Railway companies remit or lower their fares; and I suspect that very few of the 400 or 500 ladies and gentlemen assembled were put to any expense for bed or board during their sojourn in Cincinnati.

Imperfect classification arising from multiplicity of of text books.

† Defective classification arises sometimes from defective organizing power in the teacher; more frequently from the mischievous multiplicity of text books. "In most of the schools," reports a N.Y. commissioner, "a uniform "series of text books is adopted, and a good classification of the scholars can be "made; while in others the scholars bring such books as they happen to have; "consequently, each pupil constitutes a class by himself, the time of the teacher "is divided and his labour enhanced, while the pupil makes but slow progress." (*Eleventh N.Y. Report*, p. 256.) And again: "A great evil in our schools at "the present day is the diversity of text books in use; many, perhaps most of "them, may be works of merit; but such is the variety of them, that it is in "many cases quite impossible for teachers to classify their pupils according to "their attainments, or to conduct the recitations by the most approved

ungraded school is one in which the children are arranged in classes upon a certain recognized principle; but the school is not one of a graduated ascending series, being in fact supposed to be complete in itself, and all the classes are taught in one room, generally by a single teacher, with the assistance, perhaps, of monitors.*

The unclassified school dying out.

" methods." In the Pennsylvanian statistics, it appears that in 1862 there were 1,245 of these unclassified schools in that State, but in 1864 the number was reduced to 198. (*Report for* 1864, p. 17.) One may hope, therefore, that the species is dying out. In the same year, in the same State there was an increase over 1862 to the amount of 143 in the number of graded schools. " Only those schools," says the superintendent, " should be returned as " graded schools which have a regular system of grading the pupils from the " primary to the most advanced branches taught." (*Ibid.* p. 29.)

Advantages of gradation.

* " In a school of the past winter, consisting of 16 scholars, were found 25 " distinct classes: "—to make such a thing possible, of course the same " scholar would be placed in a different class in different subjects:—" while in " another school, of the same number of scholars, were found 30 classes, each of " which must be daily exercised. We were informed by the teacher that she " could not consistently make the number of classes less and that it was only " by dint of skilful management, that she could make a complete round in six " hours. But in a school that is properly classed, 16 pupils may be taught a " principle in the same time that would be required to present it to each of " four classes of four pupils each; so, in the latter case, the pupil can have but " ten minutes for his recitation, while in the former he receives an exercise of " 40 minutes. We believe that 70 or 80 scholars, brought together in one " house, and there divided, according to their rank, into two schools, each under " the care of a teacher adapted to its particular need, would be better taught, " at less actual expense than is now possible while we find them in several " different schools, each embracing every grade." (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 212.) The instances noted were instances of imperfect classification; children perhaps classified one while according to their power of reading, another while according to their power of ciphering. The remedy suggested is to classify according to a uniform principle, and to grade the school by breaking it up into departments, the one subordinate to the other, under separate teachers.

Sample of a perfect organization.

The school committee of Cambridge say they have tried to improve their schools by a similar proceeding: " Besides reducing the number of grades in the " inferior schools, we have introduced a uniform classification, dividing all the " grammar schools into six classes, and the primary into four, besides the " alphabet class. For each class in both schools we have prescribed a definite " course of study, so that henceforth the degree of advancement of the children " in any class will be the same at the same time in all the schools." (*Ibid.* p. 53.) This would be a nearly perfect organization.

The following passage from Mr. W. H. Wells's useful little manual on " graded schools " will throw light on the American system, and help to make its phraseology intelligible.

Gradation in city schools.

" In all cities and large towns there are numerous transfers from one school " to another. As pupils from different schools are thus brought together, it " is often found that those who are equally advanced in one branch of study " are very unequally advanced in other branches. This creates confusion and " inconvenience in the classification. Hence the importance of some uniform " system of gradation in all the schools of a city or town. It is obviously un- " reasonable to expect one school to make the same progress in all cases as " another more favourably situated; but it is not impracticable so to arrange " the course of study, that there may be certain stand-points in it, at which " the pupils shall be required to reach a given standard of attainment in all the " parallel branches, and from which no one shall be allowed to advance in one " branch before all the other branches are brought up to the same standard. " At these particular points, it is plain that the pupils will be together in all " the branches in all the schools; and if these points are made sufficiently " numerous in the course, a pupil may pass from one school to any other in " the city or town at any time, and he will find some class equally advanced

Such are most of our own English parochial and elementary schools. The graded school is part of a system divided into two, three, or more parts, each part, except the two extremes, organically connected both with one below of which it is the advance, and one above for which it is the preparation; each grade ordinarily corresponding with and representing a year's progress; and though that progress is meant to be equable throughout, at certain points in it there are well-defined breaks, and the scholar passes from the primary or infant school into the grammar or secondary school, and from that again into the high school, in which the system culminates. The period of time ordinarily assigned to the whole course is about 13 years, from the age of five to the age of 18, of which three to four years would be spent in the primary school; —*three* years is the prescribed period in Boston;—four to five in the grammar school; and again four to five in the high school. The "grades" correspond somewhat to our "standards" of examination under the revised code—promotion from one grade to another taking place at fixed periods, seldom oftener than twice a year, and always as the result of examination. Graded schools.

There is a pretty general complaint that the desire of teachers in all the grades to make rapid and numerous promotions, and the competition which exists between different schools of the same grade with this aim, have a mischievous influence upon the system;* and, as a consequence, stringent rules are laid down by Effects of competition.

"with himself in all studies. In classifying the pupils of cities and large "towns, it has been found convenient to divide all that belong to the grammar "and primary schools into 10 grades—four grammar grades, and six primary. "In smaller towns a less number of grades will be found more convenient. It "is important that the divisions between the successive grades should be "plainly and sharply defined." (*The Graded School*, p. 8.)

"All the pupils in any one class attend to precisely the same studies and "use the same books. In each room there will be a first and second class, "and it is important that the identical pupils who compose the first class in "one branch should constitute the first class in every branch pursued by the "same class. By this arrangement, while one class is reciting, the other is "preparing for recitation, and an alternating process is kept up through the "day, affording the pupils ample time to study their lessons, and the teacher "ample time to instruct each class. . . This is what is meant by a graded "and classified school." (*Ira Divoll, Superintendent of St. Louis Schools, quoted by Mr. Wells, ibid.*)

* "The course of study pursued through the several departments is as "nearly uniform as is attainable, and the various grades are judiciously arranged. "There is too great anxiety, however, in many of the schools, stimulated not "unfrequently by outward pressure, to make frequent promotions from one "grade to another, often before all the studies of the grade from which pro- "motions are made are thoroughly completed and reviewed. Except in "special cases, promotions should not be made oftener than twice in a year, "and in no case should a class or a pupil be transferred from the primary to "the grammar school, or from a lower to a higher grade, without having fully "passed through the preceding course. Thorough scholarship is of far more "importance than rapid promotions, and neither the partial judgment of "parents, nor the natural but injudicious desire of teachers to fill up their "classes or complete their grade, should be permitted to interfere with the "substantial welfare of the pupils. . . . The time for the completion of "each grade is unlimited, and the teacher can occupy as long or as short a "period as will suffice for doing his work well."—*Superintendent of N.Y.* Mr. Randall of New York on rapid promotions.

most of the Boards of Education to regulate the time and system of promotions, which, however, do not appear to be thoroughly successful in checking the evil.* The number of promotions from the Primary School to the Grammar School with which it is connected, or again from the Grammar School to the High School, is made by the public, and by the teachers among themselves, a test of their respective efficiency as compared with their neighbours; and hence the natural results of superficiality and making "more haste than good speed," or else of "high pressure," under which the health both of pupils and teachers often breaks down.†

Ages of entering the different grades.

The ages at which children enter these different grades of schools vary, but the rule may be stated to be as follows:—They enter the primary school at five or six, the grammar school at eight or nine, the high school at 12 or 13.‡ The stage to which a child is

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Schools, N.Y, 11th Report, pp. 243–4. It is on points like this that the supervision of a judicious Principal becomes all-important. *One* driving teacher, if unchecked, can of course drive the whole school—one dragging teacher, retard it.

Boston rule of promotion.

* The Boston rules are:—No scholars are to be promoted from one class to another till they are familiar with all the lessons of the class from which they are to be transferred, except for satisfactory reasons. Promotions from the primary to the grammar school are only to take place twice a year; but, occasionally, promotions may be made on the Monday of any week, whenever the sub-committee of the primary school and the master of the grammar-school may deem it necessary. Promotions are made after examination by the master of the grammar school, who gives certificates of admission to those whom he finds qualified.

New York rule.

The New York rule is:—"No pupil shall be promoted from any primary "school unless examined in the highest grade of studies provided for primary "schools, and found to be qualified by the principal of the grammar school "to which the promotion is to be made, or by the city superintendent, or such "of his assistants as he may designate for that purpose, and when so qualified "such promotion shall be immediately made by the principal of the primary "school. Promotion from a lower to a higher class shall in all cases be made "when, on examination, the city superintendent or his assistant shall find the "whole or any portion of such lower class qualified for such promotion."—(*The Manual*, p. 87.)

High pressure.

† The judicious and experienced Superintendent of the Boston schools calls attention to this evil in more than one of his reports. It appears to exist chiefly in the grammar-schools, and more extensively among the girls than among the boys. It is found both in the upper and lower classes, but operates most injuriously in the highest division, where the competition for medals is severe. "I think," says Mr. Philbrick, "there are teachers who put on the "'high pressure,' not because they think it for the good of their pupils, but "because they feel compelled to do so for fear of being considered inefficient "if their pupils do not come up as high on examination as the pupils of certain "other schools."—(*Report for* 1864, p. 115.)

A certain amount of competition, no doubt, is a wholesome stimulant, but it appears to be carried to an excess which is seriously injuring the physique of the pupils, and producing effects which it is feared may tell with fatal influence on generations yet unborn. The subject is being taken up with much earnestness in Boston—not a day too soon—and not only are calisthenic exercises being largely introduced into the girls' schools, but a new system of vocal culture is being employed under the direction of its author, Mr. Monro, which invigorates the organs at the same time that it largely augments their power.

Boston intermediate schools.

‡ In Boston there are certain schools called "intermediate," or (in the rules of the School Committee), "schools of special instruction." They are

advanced in the primary school may be judged of by the examination he is required to pass on admission to the grammar school. By the regulations of the Boston School Committee, "Any pupil "may be admitted into the grammar schools who, on examination, "shall be found able to read at first sight easy prose; to spell "common words of one, two, or three syllables; to distinguish "and name the marks of punctuation; to perform mentally such "simple questions in addition, subtraction, and division as are "found in Eaton's Primary Arithmetic; to answer readily to any "proposed combination of the multiplication table in which neither "factor exceeds ten; to read and write Arabic numbers containing "three figures, and the Roman numerals as far as the sign of 100; "and to enunciate clearly and accurately the elementary sounds "of our language."* Boston standard of attainments at eight years of age.

In the programme of the New York primary schools rather more is attempted, but I doubt whether more is actually achieved; and the above list may be accepted as exhibiting the average attainments of an American child, who has been taught in the common schools, at eight years of age.† New York estimate.

The age of admission to the high schools varies, but 13 may be taken as the mean. For admission to the Latin High School at Boston a candidate must be not less than 10;‡ to the English Age of admission to high schools.

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intended for pupils who are not qualified for admission to the grammar school, and yet are too old or too big to be admitted into or to remain in the primary school, where they might possibly interfere with discipline or retard progress. There are 28 such schools in Boston, and they are said to be found very useful. They are generally ungraded, or at least only partially graded schools, and thus allow of more individualized instruction and more individualized promotion than is possible where a thorough system of grading prevails. The course of instruction is substantially the same as that in the primary schools, to which class they therefore properly belong. Both equally are feeders of the grammar school.

* *Boston School Regulations*, p. 50.

† I will print in an appendix the programme of study for each grade of school at New York and Boston, together with some examination papers sufficient to illustrate the points noticed in the text. What is done in these two cities may be taken as a sample of what is done, or at least of what is attempted, elsewhere. The New York programmes are the grander and more ambitious of the two, but I think that the Boston system produces sounder results. Boston and New York programmes.

‡ It is not expected that those admitted to the Latin High School should have completed the grammar-school course. The reason for so low an age of admission as 10 being fixed upon is thus stated by Mr. Philbrick:—"The "method of instruction pursued in this school requires the larger portion of "the Latin and Greek grammars, now grown to a large bulk, to be committed "to memory very thoroughly. Experience and observation seem to have "settled the fact that this memory work is, as a general rule, accomplished "more successfully and satisfactorily by the pupils who begin at the age of 10 "or 12 than by those who commence at the age of 15 or 16. Besides, the "English branches, which are by no means neglected at this school, are learnt "much more easily in connection with the ancient languages, or after having "made some progress in them, than previous to commencing them. . "... And, then if a boy is to learn both the English grammar and the Latin, "there is great economy in beginning with the latter, for while a knowledge "of English grammar affords but little aid in acquiring the Latin, an acquaintance with the Latin grammar makes the study of the English almost "unnecessary. Early age of admission to Boston Latin High School.

High School, not less than 12; to the Girls' High School, not less than 15 nor more than 19; to the Free Academy at New York he must be 14.

Qualifications for admission to Boston Latin High School,

The qualifications for admission to the Latin High School are that a boy "shall be able to read English correctly and fluently, "to spell all words of common occurrence, to write a running "hand, to understand mental arithmetic and the simple rules of "written arithmetic, and be able to answer the most important "questions in geography, and shall have a sufficient knowledge of "English grammar to parse common sentences in prose. A "knowledge of Latin grammar is considered equivalent to that of "English."* For admission to the English High School for boys and the High School for girls, the terms are nearly the same:—certificates of age and moral character and ability to pass a satisfactory examination in spelling, reading, writing, English grammar, arithmetic, modern geography, and the history of the United States.

To the English High School, and Girls' High School.

Length of the course.

The normal period of the course at each of these schools is, at the Girls' High School, three years; at the boys' English School, four years; at the Latin School, six years. The full course of the New York Free Academy, which receives boys only, is five years of two terms each.

This course not completed in the case of the large majority of children.

It must not be imagined, however, that the bulk of the children who are admitted to the primary school at the age of five or six pursue this course, which is theoretically marked out for them, to its completion. One of the New York assistant superintendents computes that *not more than one-half* of the children who attend the primary schools ever enter the grammar schools;† and another states that a considerable number do not even complete the primary course.‡ A similar phenomenon in relation to the Free

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"There is another consideration in favour of sending boys to this school at "an early age. Those who enter late feel it necessary to take what is called "'the short course,' in order to be prepared for college at the usual age, doing "six years' work in three or four. Of those who undertake this task, some "succeed very well, but many either get discouraged and drop out of the "school, abandoning the idea of a college education, or break down in health, "or injure their eyes by too much night study on the fine print of their text "books."—(*Boston Report for* 1864, p. 145.)

It will be seen from this that the Latin High School rather breaks in upon the principle of sequence and gradation which prevails in the other parts of the system, and that in fact it and the grammar schools, in some subjects of instruction, overlap one another.

* *Boston Regulations*, p. 61.

† *Mr. Calkins' Report* (*in N.Y. Report for* 1864), p. 82.

Many children never get beyond the primary school.

‡ *Mr. Jones's Report* (*ibid.*), p. 55:—"Tens of thousands leave school "without entering the grammar departments, and some before they have "finished the studies of the highest primary class. A much larger number "seldom enter those classes in which the study of grammar or history is "taught. The necessities of parents impel them to take this step, and the "various factories where employment can be had invite them to enter. How-"ever much we may lament these things, they nevertheless exist, and every "year increases the evil. These children who leave so early are found in sub-"sequent years in the evening schools, groping their way along, knowing less "than when they left the primary school."

The Controllers of Philadelphia notice the same thing:—"While the high "schools are deserving of every care as valuable institutions, we must not

Academy, which unites in itself the characters of an English and Latin High School, is still more noteworthy. The average number taught in the grammar and primary schools of New York for the year 1864 was 69,616—or, to speak roundly, 70,000, of whom it would perhaps be fair to assume that one-half, or 35,000, were boys. At the Free Academy, in the same year, there were only enrolled 648 students, of whom only 536 "pursued for four "months of the academic year the classical studies or the higher "branches of an English education required by the Board of "Regents." Case of the Free Academy in this respect.

Again, at the beginning of the year, in February, the senior class consisted of 43 scholars; the junior of 40; the sophomore of 61; the freshman class of 111; the introductory class of 273. Six months later, at the July examination, the numbers in these classes had respectively dwindled to 40, 34, 50, 88, 199.* No doubt the process of growing "fine by degrees and beautifully less" will continue; and by the time that the introductory class has reached the dignity of seniors, their number probably will not exceed 45. Indeed in no year since the establishment of the academy has the number of pupils who have completed their course and graduated reached 50.† The dwindling of classes.

"forget that out of the 75,000 pupils now in our schools not more than 500 "are received into these institutions per annum. The huge portion never see "the interior of these schools; a very large number never get into the "grammar schools; very many never reach a secondary."—(*Report for* 1865, p. 23.) The Secondary School in Philadelphia occupies an intermediate place between the primary and the grammar school. Its rank may be estimated from the following rule of promotion:—"Before pupils in any of the primary "schools are promoted to secondary schools they shall be well grounded in "long division by three figures, and pupils from secondary schools shall "understand compound division before they are admitted into the grammar "schools." From this it looks as though proficiency in arithmetic were made the chief basis of classification in Philadelphia schools. Secondary schools at Philadelphia.

The local organization of Philadelphia is, like that of Boston, into 26 sections, each with its own board of directors, and its own subordinated series of grammar, secondary, and primary schools.

* "Senior," "Junior," "Sophomore," "Freshman,"—these usual terms of American collegiate nomenclature correspond to a student of the fourth, third, second, and first year, respectively. As the course of the Free Academy is one of five years, the four classes indicated by these names are each rated a year higher, and students of the first year form the "Introductory Class." Explanation of terms.

† Another observable fact in relation to the Free Academy is the proportion in which its pupils have been supplied from the different ward schools. These are 53 in number, of which, however, only 49 have boys' departments; and of these 49, six have never so much as furnished a candidate for admission, while others have admitted as many as 202, 290, 703, 956. In 1864, 16 schools did not send up a candidate for examination; and nine more, making up more than half of the whole number, only admitted one, while one school passed as many as 55, another as many as 107. It will be seen, therefore, that the benefits of the Free Academy are very unequally distributed. Indeed, the New York system, considering its immense extent, is very defective in its highest grade. There is no high school at all for girls, and the only substitute for one is the supplementary department tacked on to the excellent girls' school No. 47, and that only educates 130 pupils. The Free Academy is thought by many to have departed from its original purpose, which, I was informed, was not so much to give a classical education, qualifying for entrance upon the learned professions, as a scientific and practical course of training, fitting for Difference in the supply of different grammar schools to the Free Academy. Deficiency of New York system.

Similar case in Boston.

The same fact, though it assumes smaller proportions in Boston, is still perceptible there in a degree. The whole number, the Superintendent reports, promoted from the primary to the grammar schools in March 1864 was 1724, or in the ratio of the whole number belonging to the primary schools of one to seven and a half. As three years is the primary course, and promotions take place half-yearly, the true ratio should have been one to six. The number actually promoted fell short of this by 400.* Again, the same authority states that the increase of pupils in the English High School ought to have been 12 times as great as it has been, in order merely to have kept pace with the growth of the city, and 21 times as great to have held its own in comparison with the aggregate growth of the public schools.†

Boston figures for 1864.

The following figures for the year 1864 will show the state of the case:—There were enumerated that year in Boston 32,854

Free Academy not generally attractive.

the requirements of every-day life. As a consequence, it is not attractive to the mass of boys in the grammar-schools. One grammar school master told me that he could have sent in 60 candidates for admission—he only did send in three. What is wanted in New York seemed to me to be a thoroughly good commercial high school, something after the pattern of the English high school at Boston.

So too, perhaps, the fact that "not more than one-half" of the children in the primary schools ever enter the doors of the grammar schools may be partly accounted for by those schools not offering to the children the education that their parents consider suitable to their prospects in life. It is all very well in a rhetorical speech for a visitor to tell a mass of boys before him, as I heard them told again and again, that in a free country like theirs it was open to any of them to become President of the Union; the boys themselves, probably, and their parents have no such ambitious aims swelling within their bosoms. The scale is pitched too high for the lowest class of children, though, of course, an American does not like to admit that there is a "lowest class." Not a stitch of sewing is done in a New York school, nor is any form of industrial work taught, except in the Children's Aid Society's Schools.

Opinions Of Messrs. Boesé and Randall.

Indeed Mr. Boesé, the clerk to the Board of Education, a gentleman who observes very closely and intelligently the working of things as they are, thinks it will become necessary to establish two grades of schools in some localities, and to acknowledge the fact, which is ignored in the common school theory, that all children do not need the same education, nor expect to have opened out to them the same career. Grand theories not unfrequently come across stubborn facts, and must submit to be modified by them. Even Mr. Superintendent Randall, admirer as he is of the present system generally, and of the Free Academy in particular, doubts whether the girls' grammar schools meet "the growing demand for a practical education, adapted especially to the "future requirements of life," and entertains no doubt that the "re-introduc-"tion of needlework," for it had a place in the superseded system of the Public Schools' Society, "would materially add to their practical utility." (See his *Report* for 1864, pp. 18—21.)

* *Boston School Report* for 1864, p. 135.

Falling off at Boston of demand for higher education.

† "This is a startling fact," says Mr. Philbrick, "which we cannot contemplate with satisfaction. It shows a virtual falling off, to a very great extent, in respect to higher education among the young men of the city who are destined to business pursuits. It is true, no doubt, that the education received in the grammar schools is better than it was 30 or 40 years ago; but this education is still elementary, and is almost exclusively confined to what are called the common branches; and however well these may be taught, they can never become a substitute for that higher course of instruction which is furnished at our English high school." (*Boston School Report* for 1864, p. 152.)

children between five and 15 years of age. Of these 26,960 were enrolled in the public schools, and 24,617, or 91.6 per cent. of the enrolment, were in average attendance. Of these the average whole number belonging to the three high schools—Latin, English, and Girls',—was only 725, and the average attendance at them only 691. It will be seen at once from these figures what a very small proportion of the number of children nominally educated under the common school system receive the complete education which that system contemplates—how many boys and girls must carry away with them into ordinary life no more knowledge than every boy and girl can carry away from an average efficient English elementary school; and that, if it be true, as it very likely is, that there are very few Americans who cannot read and write, there must be a considerable number who, in the way of literary accomplishments, can do nothing more.*

Irregular attendance.

For, in addition to the incompleteness of the course through which many of the children pass, there is another "startling fact" which the reports reveal in relation to attendance. I have already touched upon this point, when speaking of compulsory laws; but it may be as well to illustrate the general statements there made by a few figures. The following Table exhibits, in the case of six States and of eight important cities, the total amount of persons within the school age, the total enrolment on the registers of the schools, the average attendance at the schools, and the per-centage of "attendance" upon "enrolment." In my report to the Duke of Newcastle's Commission I drew up a similar table exhibiting the same facts with reference to the agricultural district which had been assigned to me; and it there appeared that the per-centage of average attendance upon the whole number of children enrolled in the schools was 73; the variations being between 78, the highest, and 65, the lowest.† It will be seen that the American figures present a state of things even worse in this respect than we are accustomed to and deplore at home.

Comparison with English rate.

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* In the Massachusetts prison statistics for 1862, it appears that there were in that year 9,705 persons committed, of whom 1,576—one in six nearly—were minors, and 1,965—one in five—could not read or write. (*National Almanac* for 1864, p. 296.) It is true that of the 9,705, 6,296 were of foreign birth; but it would be going too far to assume that all of the 1,965 ignoramuses were of alien extraction. The Board of State Charities in Massachussetts in their Report for 1865 "urge that more attention be paid and more money be "expended for the instruction of prisoners, since *more than one-third of all "committed are unable to read and write.*" p. xliii.

Prison statistics.

† See *Report of Duke of Newcastle's Commission*, vol. ii. p. 33. The average result of the 10 specimen districts was rather higher than mine, viz., 76 per cent. In Mr. Winder's manufacturing district it rose as high as 82 per cent., higher than in favoured Massachusetts. (*Report*, vol. i. p. 648.)

Name of State.	Total No. of Persons in School age.	Total No. enrolled on school register.	Average attendance.	Per centage of attendance on enrolment.
Massachusetts - -	241,644	226,400	181,669	80
Rhode Island - -	56,934	29,641	23,256	78
Connecticut - - -	114,772	77,126	55,361	72
Pennsylvania - - -	not given	709,930	460,065	64
Ohio* - - -	938,972	694,920	396,256	57
New York - - -	1,307,822	881,184	not given	—
Average - - -	—	—	—	70
Name of City.				
Boston - - -	32,854	26,960	24,617	91
Newhaven - - -	8,116	5,131	3,670	71
Cincinnati - - -	not given	23,188	14,911	64
St. Louis - - -	not given	12,152	7,058	58
Detroit - - - -	not given	8,111	4,437	54
Chicago - - - -	not given	21,188	10,002	47
Brooklyn, N.Y. - -	not given	50,366	21,143	42
New York - - -	circ. 250,000 ?	173,717	70,388	40
Average - - -	—	—	—	58

Period of attendance.

The subsequent Table is interesting in the same relation. It exhibits the periods of attendance of the scholars enrolled in the registers of the public schools in the State of New York, and in the cities of New York and St. Louis.†

Name of State or City.	Attended less than 40 days.	More than 40, less than 80.	More than 80, less than 120.	More than 120, less than 160.	More than 160, less than 200.	More than 200.	Whole enrolment.
New York, State	223,137	239,442	175,816	114,868	63,208	64,713	881,184
New York, City -	38,689	32,213	26,170	23,938	20,724	41,391	183,125
St. Louis - -	2,098	2,058	1,910	2,109	3,864	123	12,152

It may be thought that three instances, as in this Table, constitute an imperfect induction upon which to build a general conclusion; but the three Reports from which I have taken these figures are the only ones in my possession which tabulate the phenomena of attendance under the category of time. It is probable that things would be better in Boston, possible that

* In Ohio and New York the school age is reckoned between five and 21; in the other states between five and 15, or else four and 16 years.

Comparative tables of American and English schools.

† The figures are taken from the respective reports. (See *New York State 11th Report*, p. 14; *New York City 23d Report, Superintendent Randall's Report*, p. 5; *St. Louis Report* for 1864, p. 49.) There is a variation between the "enrolment" of the New York City schools here and in the former table. *There* the ward schools only are reckoned; *here* the corporate schools are included too. It seems impossible everywhere to get statistics taken upon a uniform and consistent basis.

they would be better in Massachusetts; but when it is remembered that 87 townships, more than one-fourth of the whole number, in that State kept their schools open for a less period than 120 days in 1864, one ceases to be confident that a more favourable return could be made even there.* Anyhow, it would seem that the condition of schools in America, as respects both the per-centage of attendance and the period of attendance, is no better than, indeed hardly so good as, the average condition of schools among ourselves. Of course this is no matter for exultation; but it may at least dispose us to acquiesce in a shortcoming which appears inevitable, and teach us that under all systems there will remain a mass of apathy, thriftlessness, and ignorance against which it is certainly our duty to fight, but which it is vain to hope ever effectually to subdue.

Sex of scholars.

There is no settled principle governing the American system in the matter of the distribution of the scholars according to their sex. Perhaps what most approaches to a rule is, that all schools below grammar schools are mixed, but that grammar and high schools are separate. This is the rule in New York city; but it is a rule that has many exceptions. In Baltimore, in all the gradations, high, grammar, and primary, the sexes are separated; in Newhaven and Chicago, in all the grades equally, they are mixed. In Boston the practice is not uniform. The high schools, it is true, are separate, and the primaries are mixed; but of the 20 grammar schools, seven are boys' schools, seven are girls' schools, and six are mixed schools.

No uniform rule.

Public feeling itself varies.

There is a wide diversity of opinion and sentiment upon the

The table below gives the centesimal proportions :—

Attended.	Less than 40 days.	More than 40, less than 80.	More than 80, less than 120.	More than 120, less than 160.	More than 160, less than 200.	More than 200.
N. York State -	25	27	21	13	7	7
N. York City -	21	18	14	14	11	22
St. Louis - -	17	17	15	18	32	1
Average -	21	21	17	15	16	10

These results may be compared with advantage with those obtained by the Duke of Newcastle's Commission for the 10 specimen districts.

Attended.	Less than 50 days.	50 days, but less than 100.	100, but less than 150.	150 to 200 inclusive.	Above 200 days.
Average per cent. -	17·4	18·9	20·9	24·4	18·4

See *Report*, vol. i, p. 651. Here, again, it will be perceived, the condition of English schools does not contrast unfavourably with the condition of American schools. The periods taken in the returns are not quite the same, but they are sufficiently near to admit of comparison.

* See above p. 17, note.

subject. Some parents will not send their children, particularly their girls, to the primary school, for fear of the influence of association with children of a lower caste, but will send them to the grammar school, where the class of scholars, from causes already noticed, is more select.* Others, again, who have no objection to the mixture of boys and girls for the purposes of instruction up to the age of 12 or 13, think the same intercourse no longer safe or prudent when they have become four or five years older. Mr. Hager, Principal of the High School at West Roxbury, near Boston, one of the ablest and best esteemed of the Massachusetts teachers, told me, as the result of 16 years' experience, that he had observed much less appetency on the part of scholars of different sexes one to another, where the schools were mixed, than where they were separate; they seemed to meet more on the footing of brothers and sisters. In New York, in very many cases, there are three schools under one roof, but with different entrances, offices, and playgrounds. A mixed primary school will be on the first floor; a girls' grammar school on the story above; a boys' grammar school at the top. But even in the mixed schools the mixture is chiefly nominal—for the boys and girls only meet together in the assembling room, and even there occupy different sides. In the class rooms they are taught separately, and the girls are dismissed a few minutes before or after the boys. But of course all these precautions cannot prevent the occasional occurrence of difficulties out of school and on the road home; and the most approved plan is to have two grammar schools in a ward, in different localities, one for boys and the other for girls, each with a mixed primary school subordinated to it, or, at least, in the same building, for, strictly speaking, there is no subordination.†

New York arrangements.

Practice in Philadelphia.

* This, I was told, is a common practice in Philadelphia. There are many parochial schools, that is, schools attached to and supported by different churches, and also many private schools in this city. The average charge for instructionis 10 cents a week. The master of one of the grammar schools informed me that these schools are preferred for younger children by many parents who do not like the mixture in the primary and secondary schools. We have already seen that in some places more than half the scholars never rise as high as the grammar school. Of course, these would, as a general rule, be the children of the poorest class of parents. In a rural township in Connecticut I met two little girls who went to a private school at some distance, in preference to the district school which was just opposite their door. They gave me as a reason that their mother did not like to send them there because the boys used such bad language. In New York, where children are not limited in their choice of a school to their own district, but are free to go to what school they please—a liberty that is not allowed at Boston—there is a manifest gravitation which carries "τὸν ὅμοιον ὡς τὸν ὅμοιον." The gentility of some schools forms a marked contrast to the rough aspect of others. In the summer time you will find hundreds of boys in the New York schools, and indeed throughout the country, whose whole attire consists of a cap, a shirt, and a pair of trowsers.

Tendency in New York.

Cincinnati schools.

† It is interesting to collate the practice of different places. The schools in Cincinnati, which take a high rank, are divided into three grades, district, intermediate, and high. The period allowed to each is, six years in the district schools—twice the time allowed to a Boston primary; two years in the intermediate; four years in the high. The difference of time, as compared with Boston or New York, shows, of course, a difference of *arrangement*, but

I will reserve what I have to say about the more general question of the education of girls for the conclusion of this Report, where I will offer a few brief criticisms of some of the more salient features of the whole system.

By the theory of a common school system scholars of every rank are supposed to come within the sphere of its operation. But actual—I don't know whether they can be called natural*—distinctions cannot be disposed of by a theory, and, as a matter of fact, social distinctions do tell with a very marked effect upon American schools. Speaking generally, they are in possession of the great middle class, the artizans, storekeepers, farmers. The system works with a much nearer approach to its *idea* or theoretic perfection in the country, where ranks are more equalized, and

Social status of scholars.

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not any real difference of *system*. There are 18 district schools, with about 900 children in each; two intermediate schools, with 450 scholars apiece; two high schools, each with 200 pupils. These high schools are partly endowed, and work with a not very wholesome jealousy one of another, on the part of their trustees. All these schools are mixed. But boys and girls occupy separate rooms for study, and in the district schools for recitations also; so that, though they are in the same building, they never meet. In these schools, 48 pupils is the number assigned to a teacher, and the same teacher instructs the class in all their studies. In the intermediate and high schools the teachers take branches of instruction, and teach the same subjects to different classes. Boys and girls at the allotted hour of each recitation go to the room in which that particular subject is taught, and sit together, but on opposite sides of the room.

In the Bigelow grammar school, South Boston—an excellently organized and efficient school—the sexes are mixed, and by an arrangement which is unusual, the classes are mixed also in every sense, there being no strict line of demarcation between boys and girls during recitation; they sit at their desks intermingled.

A Boston arrangement.

In many places I noticed a much larger proportion of girls than of boys in the upper departments. In Providence, where all schools are mixed; in the grammar and high schools the number of girls to boys was about two to one. In the high school at Springfield, Mass., there were 85 girls to 45 boys. In Massachusetts all the high schools, except those at Boston and Newburyport, are mixed.

More girls than boys in upper departments.

Newburyport is interesting in the history of American education, as being the first town which established a high school for girls, and obtained a decision of the courts in favour of its being legal to levy a tax in support of such a school. Up to that time it had been taken for granted that the State law only contemplated high schools for boys.

* They certainly may be called so in Bishop Butler's meaning of the word "natural:" "There seems scarce any other possible sense to be put upon "the word, but that only in which it is here used; 'similar, stated, uniform.'" (*Analogy*, part i. ch. i.) And social distinctions certainly seem to be a stated, uniform result of God's providence, and to make themselves felt, if not quite in the same way, yet in quite as marked a way, under democratic as under monarchical or aristocratic institutions. The theory of the literal and absolute equality of all men is sometimes vindicated in a summary and unpleasant way by an American who thinks you are forgetting it, and wishes to help you to realize it; but, as a rule, it is not recognized in practice. The offensive features of social superiority do not often exhibit themselves in America—the general sentiment is too strong for *them*. But, with proper feeling and real refinement, they need not exhibit themselves anywhere; and where they do, they are a sufficient proof that the superiority is artificial and accidental, not real and inherent.

Social distinctions.

there is no one rich and no one poor, than it does in the cities and towns. Yet even in country districts "aristocratic feelings" and prejudices, very foolishly and unhappily, it must be admitted, are beginning to prevail.* And in all the cities, New York, New-

Upgrowth of aristocratic feelings and tendencies.

* The Commissioner for the First District of Queen's County, N.Y., reports: "Pupils begin generally to attend school at too young an age, say "from five to six; then they are taken from the schools at from 12 to 14—by "the wealthy to be sent to boarding-schools, and by the poor to be put to work. "If they are to be taken from the district school, I think the wealthy also might "better 'put them to work.' The children of many of the wealthy are never sent to the district school, from an aristocratic feeling on the part of the parents, "who do not want their children to associate with those of the poor. In a few "cases the practice has almost destroyed the district school." (*11th Report*, p. 276.)

The Superintendent of common schools in Pennsylvania, speaking of academies and private schools, says: "We do not require such a multiplicity of "these institutions as we have in the State—schools where the most primary "branches are taught. Such schools are drawing from the common schools "the very influence and support that they should have, that is, the influence of "men of wealth and position in society—men whose support would of itself "render them popular, and the withholding of which has a tendency to render "them unpopular." (*Report for* 1864, p. 34.) We have already heard this gentleman recognizing as a special merit in the graded school its anti-aristocratic influences. (*Above* p. 28, note.)

Preference of private to public schools.

The tendency of parents to prefer private to public schools is lamented by the school committee of Greenfield, Mass.: "The committee cannot but express "their regret at what seems to be a growing disposition among a large class of "our people to remove their children altogether from the public schools. We "say this is no spirit of hostility to private schools. We appreciate the motives "which prompt parents to withdraw their young children from what they fear to "be the corrupting influence of the public schools." (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 149.)

Another committee think that private schools are gaining ground upon the public schools, by reason of the higher education they offer. (*Ibid.* p. 157.) But this is not the general, nor is it my own, opinion. I believe the preference for the private school is dictated solely by social motives. "It is a noteworthy "fact," says another N.Y. commissioner, "that private schools with no better "qualified or more successful teachers than may be found in the adjoining "district schools are much more liberally patronized than the latter." (*Eleventh N.Y. Report*, p. 305.) The "fact" is attributed to "apathy." It is more probably attributable to pride.

Occupation of parents of students in high schools of New York and Philadelphia.

In illustration of the class of pupils who are found in the high schools, I append the following lists, extracted from the different reports. In interpreting them, the large sense in which the word "merchant" is used in America, as in Scotland, must be remembered. In analysing the Philadelphia list a little more closely, I found one of those so classed was a "rag merchant."

A. Parentage of 351 pupils admitted to the Introductory Class of the Free Academy, N.Y., in July 1864:—Artists, 2; auctioneers, 2; brokers, 8; bookkeepers, 7; builders or contractors, 11; bankers, 3; brewer, 1; clerks or agents, 28; clergymen, 6; dealers or pedlars, 3; engineers, 4; hotel-keepers, 2; lawyers, 13; labourers, 3; masons, 3; merchants or manufacturers, 53; mechanics or artizans, 24; officers in army, 3; physicians or medical men, 13; professors or teachers, 11; publishers, editors, or authors, 6; police inspectors, 9; storekeepers or tradesmen, 74; shopmen, 3; miscellaneous, 9; occupations not given, many of them apparently widows, 42; independent or retired from business, 8; total, 351.

B. Occupations of parents or guardians of 160 students admitted July 5th 1864, to the Central Boys' High School, Philadelphia:—Agents, 2; assessor, 1; baker, 1; beamsman, 1; blacksmiths, 4; boarding-house keeper, 1; book-

haven, Hartford, Providence, and even in Boston, the wealthier class, indeed all who can afford to do so, almost without exception, send their children to private schools. Of the persons whose acquaintance I made in the country, most of whom I should rate at about the same level of social rank and social feeling as myself, I do not remember one who used either for sons or daughters the common schools. In all these cities there are finishing schools for young ladies* just as there would be in cities of the same character

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binders, 2; book-keepers, 3; bookseller, 1; bricklayer, 1; broker, 1; cabinet-makers, 3; carpenters, 6; chandlers, 2; clergyman, 1; clerks, 9; clothiers, 4; coachman, 1; contractor, 1; conveyancers, 3; cordwainers, 9; engraver, 1; farmers, 2; fire-marshal, 1; furriers, 2; grocers, 4; hatter, 1; innkeepers, 4; iron founders, 2; jeweller, 1; lawyers, 2; machinists, 4; manufacturers, 14; mariners, 3; merchants, 22; miller, 1; millwright, 1; pattern-maker, 1; perfumer, 1; physicians, 3; potter, 1; printer, 1; saddler, 1; sail-maker, 1; seamstresses, 2; sexton, 1; silversmith, 1; stationer, 1; surveyors, 2; tailors, 5; teachers, 2; tragedian, 1; undertakers, 2; upholsterer, 1; victualler, 1; watchmaker, 1; watchman, 1; not engaged in business, 8; total, 160.

C. The pupils in high schools are, of course, a sort of *corps d'élite*. The St. Louis statistics give the occupations of the parents of the whole number of pupils, 12,349, enrolled in the common schools. They are as follows:—Agents 266; artists, 99; barkeepers, 204; boatmen, 707; butchers, 209; clerks, 407; draymen and teamsters, 333; farmers and gardeners, 286; labourers, 1,194; laundresses, 276; manufacturers, 590; mechanics, 2,875; merchants, 1,414; professional men, 433; public officers, 620; seamstresses, 385; unclassified, 2,051; total, 12,349.

Ladies' private schools.

* A young lady at Boston gave me the following account of the private school in which she was receiving her education:—There are 70 pupils and three regular teachers, with special teachers of French, Italian, German, drawing, and natural philosophy. Oddly enough, music is not taught. Hours of study are from 9 a.m. to 2 p.m., with a recess of half an hour. Home lessons occupy two or two and a half hours. Terms are $150 a year. Vacations are 13 weeks in summer, one week at Christmas, one in May. The subjects of instruction are—arithmetic, algebra, geometry, geology, chemistry, geography, history, rhetoric and belles-lettres, Latin, French, Italian, German, drawing. The young ladies read Virgil, Horace, and Cicero, are obliged to speak French one to another in school, sometimes translate English plays into French. The usual age of entrance is 14, and the school period is four or five years. There is no periodic examination of the school.

Hopkins' endowed grammar school, Newhaven.

Hopkins' endowed grammar school at Newhaven, which I visited, is a sample of a type of school, outside the common school system, not uncommon in New England and in other parts of the Union. Phillips' academies at Exeter and Andover, Massachusetts, are of the same class. Their chief function is to prepare students of a superior class for the University.

Hopkins' grammar school was founded in 1662 by Edward Hopkins, Cromwell's Administrator of the Admiralty, who was himself educated at Shrewsbury School, and was for some time Governor of Connecticut. It is governed by a body of trustees—a close corporation, self-electing—and is endowed with land producing about $600 a year. There are, however, no scholars on the foundation, all pay $40 a year. There is one principal, and one assistant teacher, and an average attendance of 60 pupils. Most of these have been prepared at private schools and stay here from three to five years; 15 or 20 come from distant States. The whole course of study is determined by the requirements of Yale College, beneath whose shadow the grammar school lives. The terms, which are 40 weeks in the year, and vacations, exactly correspond with those of Yale. I was struck with the fine appearance and frank manners of the boys: there was the unmistakeable tone of the gentleman about them.

Terms in private schools.

among ourselves; and there are private day or boarding schools for boys, at which they remain till they are fit for college. The charge for tuition at these private schools would be from $150 to $200 a year; for boarders the terms would rise as high as $500 or $600. The education, at least in the girls' schools, would not, indeed could not well, be of a higher type than that offered to public acceptance by the high schools; but probably more attention would be bestowed upon "accomplishments"—on music and the modern languages. At Yale College, Newhaven,—which, and Harvard University, near Boston, are the Oxford and Cambridge of America,—I was informed that, though a large proportion of the students had been educated in the common schools,* yet, as a

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Its programme of study.

The programme of study includes Latin and Greek, arithmetic, algebra, and two books of Euclid, ancient and modern geography, ancient and modern history, essays and compositions, but no modern language. The hours of study are from 8.45 a.m. to 12.15 p.m. and from 2.30 to 4.30 p.m. for five days in the week. The time devoted to some of the principal subjects is as follows: Latin, five recitations a week of an hour each; Greek, four recitations of an hour; arithmetic, three recitations of 40 minutes; Euclid, during one term of the year only, three recitations a week of 45 minutes; algebra, four recitations of 45 minutes; geography, two recitations of 30 minutes. Greek is commenced late. The third class, aged about 15, had been learning Latin two or three years, but had only studied Greek seven weeks. In two years they would enter college. I thought this language hardly had attention enough paid to it. As universally in America, Greek is read by accent, and the vowels and diphthongs are pronounced in what, I believe, is called the German fashion.

This is a type of the highest American school preparatory to college; and while it will be seen that the programme is quite as limited as any that was ever adopted in any English public school, the progress, at any rate in the classical department, is very much slower than we should approve. It would be a rare and exceptional case to find a boy of 15 at Rugby or Shrewsbury who was in his "first lessons" in Greek.

Poor students at the University.

* Students with very humble means contrive to get an education at Yale or Harvard, often through the liberality of private patrons, though there are also exhibitions for the relief of meritorious poverty. Real talent in humble rank is nearly sure to meet with help in America, and I was told of many instances of students of narrow resources who were maintained at Harvard by rich Boston merchants. A sad event happened at Harvard, while I was at Boston, which threw a gloom over the gaiety of the annual "class-day." A student from Buffalo, New York, had died the day before of typhoid fever brought on by a want of sufficiency of nourishing food. The young man was poor, and he stinted himself in the absolute necessaries of life that he might be able to pay his way. One of the professors, with characteristic benevolence, observed his haggard looks, and having ascertained the cause, out of his own by no means ample income gave him $50, with a charge to spend it on better living. But either the relief came too late, or the young man could not prevail upon himself to change his ways. Fever struck him and he died.

Expense of university education.

The average annual cost of a university education at Yale or Harvard to a moderate man is $500 or $600 a year. Some students spend as much as $1,000 or $1,200. The difference chiefly lies in the expenditure upon style of living and dress. Very few students indulge in expensive amusements in which the rest cannot share, and only now and then a young man keeps a riding horse. A large number have rooms in college, the rest board with families in the town. There is no such thing as a college buttery or kitchen. For meals, the ordinary plan is to form little messes of 10 or 12, who are provided for at a fixed rate per week in private houses in the town. Vacations at Yale are seven weeks in the summer, two at Christmas, three at Easter. The terms, which are three, consist of 14, 14, and 12 weeks, respectively.

general rule, they finished off with a year's preparation in a private school with a view to a more exclusive reading in the classics.

No exact competition between public and private schools.

There can hardly be said to be any competition between these different classes of schools, the common school on the one hand and the academy or private school on the other. They exist side by side in an amicable way because apparently there is a demand for both. In wealthy neighbourhoods the latter flourish and abound; where property is more equally distributed it is to the interest of the inhabitants to support the former.* They hardly ever draw their supplies from the same class of children. Either those in the private school and the academy are children of richer parents or they are older children. The education given in them either is more costly or it is more advanced. And the number of children reported to be educated in these private or corporate seminaries, even in States where they are most numerous, after all does not amount to much, when compared with the number found in the public schools. It will be sufficient to illustrate this by a table drawn up from statistics supplied by the three States of Massachusetts, New York, and Ohio.

Statistics of academies and private schools.

Name of State.	Number of Incorporated Academies.	Aggregate attendance in them.	Number of Private Schools.	Their aggregate attendance.	Aggregate attendance in Public Schools.
Massachusetts	59	3,169	611	16,125	226,400
New York -	230	36,768	1,490	33,302	881,184
Ohio - -	42	9,615	380	13,302	694,920
Totals -	331	49,552	2,481	62,729	1,802,504

in New York,

It is not pretended in the Reports that these figures are either complete or perfectly accurate. In New York there is an omission,

Illustration from State of New York.

* I take an illustration from two counties in the State of New York. In Suffolk County, Second District, the commissioner reports a marked progress in the common schools: "The spirit of reformation has entered into "the very constitution of the educational system, which it has invigorated and "in some instances created anew. The Union school remains in a flourishing "condition. The only academy continues a sickly existence." (11*th Report*, p. 307–9.) On the other hand, this is the picture of Tioga county: "Too "large a number of our school houses are quite unsuitable. Many of them "are old and shabby, inside and out; ventilated, if at all, by gaps through the "floor or wall; badly arranged. There is generally no furniture, not even a "chair for a visitor or the teacher. Blackboards are usually manufactured "out of two boards, partially held together by strips nailed on the end or "back with a sizable crack between, having a surface of 2 × 3 or 3 × 6 feet; "and on account of their coarse condition, and the want of either crayons or "chalk, seldom used. A few houses in this country, *located in wealthy neigh-"bourhoods*, were you to visit them, you would condemn as unsuitable to "shelter any animal, much less tender and delicate children. . . . It seems to me "that many, nay most, of these schools are making no progress whatever." As a natural companion picture: "There are two academies in this county, "having an aggregate of 150 pupils, the Owego Academy and the Waverley

through the fault of the commissioners whose duty it was to make the returns, of the private schools in four cities,—including New York and Buffalo,—and several districts; so that the complete number of schools would probably amount to 1,600, and of scholars to 35,000; but even then the per-centage on the whole aggregate attendance would be in the academies about four per cent., in private schools the same, in the common schools about 92 per cent.

Massachusetts,

In Massachusetts there was an increase in 1864, as compared with the previous year, of attendance in the academies, of 381; in the private schools, of 511; while, though there was an increase in the population between five and 15 years of age of 3,263 persons, there was a falling off in the public schools of 852. But I do not think that these figures are serious enough to indicate any change in general public sentiment.

and Ohio.

In Ohio there are 19 male academies, educating 4,530 boys; and 23 female seminaries, attended by 3,340 girls; to which I have ventured to add, in my table, the 1745 students in the preparatory classes of the 18 colleges and universities of the State. And, all told, the result in these three populous States is that the proportion of the population educated in the public schools, as compared with those educated in the academies and private schools, is as 95 per cent. to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and $3\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. respectively.*

" Institute. They very successfully teach the higher mathematics, classics, " and sciences, and to a remarkable degree show the public confidence. There " are also 15 private schools in the county, having an attendance of 431 pupils. " Some of these schools are striving for a high standard of education, and are " well sustained." (11*th Report*, pp. 318–20.)

I have no doubt that an inquirer in these two counties would find in the different social condition of the people an explanation of these discrepant phenomena. The Tioga commissioner admits the existence of "wealthy " neighbourhoods."

Incorporated academies.

* This will, perhaps, be the best place for describing, in outline, the constitution and objects of these academies. I prefer throwing my description into a note to disturbing the continuity of the text by it, because the academy really lies outside the common school system, the true sequence of whose component parts is: 1, the primary school; 2, the secondary school, by whatever special name known; 3, the high school; 4, the college or university. The last named is outside the system also, but still is its natural and intended culmination, the original object of the Massachusetts Grammar School, which by the law of 1647 was to be established in every township containing 100 householders, being "to instruct youth, so far as they may be fitted for the " universities." The existence of academies is collateral to this system, and is due to later conceptions and tendencies.

Their constitution.

The academy is an endowed school under a body of trustees, who form a corporation, and can hold property; in some instances, as in Massachusetts and New York, though apparently not in Ohio, subsidized by the State on condition of submitting to certain visitation, or fulfilling certain requirements, presumed to give a higher education than can be ordinarily procured in the public schools. The pupils received are mostly boarders, not, however, in all cases housed in the academy itself; sometimes living with families in the town or village in which the academy is situated.

I have not in my possession any document exhibiting the statistics and condition of the Massachusetts academies, but there is a fairly complete account of those in Ohio in the Report of the State Commissioner, and a very complete account of those in New York in the Report of the Board of Regents

There is, however, another element of consideration, not yet noticed, which no doubt called into existence and still maintains Connection of academies,

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of the University. From these sources of information I abstract the following details :—

In Ohio the date of the establishment of the oldest academy is 1820, 18 years after the constitution of the State; of the oldest female seminary, 1832. The course of instruction occupies a period of from three to five years, and the academic year consists of from 32 to 50 weeks. The average annual cost of education in an Ohio academy, including board, is about $150, or 25*l.*, the lowest terms being $60 (for 36 weeks), the highest $300. In the female seminaries the charges are higher, ranging from $125, the lowest, to $500, the highest. Of the 19 academies only six report a classical, only three a scientific (special), course of study. They employed in 1864 111 teachers to an average attendance of 2,658 pupils, that is, about one teacher to every 24 scholars. The value of their buildings was estimated at $162,500, or about $8,000 apiece; of their apparatus, $8,830; of their libraries, $10,850. The cost for tuition varies from $16, the lowest, to $100, the highest rate for the year, the average being $34. The cost of board would vary from $2 to $4 a week. Academies in Ohio.

In the female seminaries, which are supposed to accomplish for women what the colleges do for men, the average cost of tuition is $45 a year. "The female "seminaries," says the Commissioner, "are enjoying an unusual degree of "prosperity. The fact that there are more young women in the State receiving "a higher education than there are young men, is one of the signs of the "times. If with the manifest change in public sentiment respecting the value "and importance of female education a demand for thorough and solid "instruction is awakened, the progress will be real and the results substantial. "I am, therefore, pleased to add, that in several of these seminaries the orna-"mental branches are properly subordinated to the disciplinary and useful "studies. . . . . Several of the academies of the State have regular courses of "study, classical and scientific, able and accomplished instructors, and good "facilities for through instruction. In all these respects they are at least "equal to some of the so-called colleges and universities. It is also worthy "of note that they are receiving a generous patronage. The exceedingly low "charge for tuition in several academies must call for a self-sacrificing spirit on "the part of their teachers." (*Ohio, 11th Report*, p. 48.) Female seminaries.

In New York State there is an educational body, armed with executive and visitatorial powers in relation to all colleges and incorporated academies in the State that claim a share in the appropriations of what is called the "Literature Fund," whose title is "The Board of Regents of the University." It consists of four *ex-officio* members, the Governor, the Lieutenant-Governor, the Secretary of State, and the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and 19 other members elected for life. They appoint out of themselves a chancellor, a vice-chancellor, and a secretary. They are charged with the visitation of colleges and academies, and with the distribution of the "Literature Fund," and that portion of the "United States Deposit Fund" which is set apart for the promotion of higher education. They also grant charters of incorporation to colleges and academies. They publish annually an elaborate report, giving detailed accounts of each college in the State, and statistical tables illustrating the condition of the several academies. The New York Board of Regents of the University.

In 1864 there were 230 incorporated academies in the State subject to their visitation, of which 207 reported their condition for the previous year. Of the 36,000 pupils in attendance at them, 22,179, of whom 10,446 were males and 11,733 were females, claimed to have pursued those classical or higher English studies which entitled the academy to claim in their behalf a share in the State grant. The grant amounted to $40,000, or about $1.85 per scholar. The financial statement exhibited the value of the buildings at $2,362,872; the libraries, $151,812; the apparatus, $121,661; other property, $415,400; total $3,051,745, on which there were debts chargeable to the amount of $293,427. The revenue of the year was $583,524; the expenditure, $579,320. The sum paid as salaries to teachers was $423,822; the income derived from tuition fees was $339,362, giving an average rate of about $9.50 per scholar. In some places, as at the Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, the Statistics of New York academies.

and colleges with

many of these academies and seminaries, and particularly those intended for the education of females. A large number of them

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tuition fee is as high as $90 a year. The excess of salaries over receipts from tuition was supplied from the Literature Fund, from endowments, and in the case of academical departments in the Free Union schools, where tuition fees are not allowed to be charged to the children of inhabitants of the district, from taxes raised in the Union district.

The number of teachers employed was 1,049, or one teacher to about every 35 scholars. The age of the scholars varied from 15 to 18; the length of the vacations ranges from eight to 15 weeks. The cost varies from $80 to $350 a year, the charge for board ranging from $2 to $7.50 a week. In Rutger's Female Institute, New York, where the whole cost is set down at $357, tuition in the highest grade is charged $60, and cost of board is put at $7.50 a week. There were 86 academies, out of 90 specially designated for the purpose, which had special classes for a third of the year, attended by 1,777 scholars free of charge, for instruction in the science of common school teaching, an allowance being made to the academy by the State of $10 for every scholar so instructed.

Subjects of instruction.

The subjects of instruction in these academies, as returned by them to the Board of Regents, are :—

A. Ordinary elementary studies: Arithmetic, book-keeping, English grammar, geography, pronunciation, reading.

B. Mathematics and natural philosophy: Algebra, astronomy, geometry, natural philosophy, surveying, trigonometry, calculus, civil engineering, navigation, perspective, technology.

C. Ancient and modern languages: Latin and Greek grammar, Roman and Grecian antiquities, mythology, French, German, Italian, Spanish.

D. Natural sciences: Physiology and hygiene, botany, chemistry, geology, natural history, meteorology, mineralogy, zoology.

E. Moral, intellectual, and political science: Criticism, evidences of Christianity, general history, history of the United States, constitutional law, logic, natural theology, political economy, rhetoric, principles of teaching.

A magnificent programme, embracing nearly the whole circle of knowable things. That a tenth part of these subjects are taught at at all, or if attempted, can be taught with any thoroughness, those who are conversant with such matters will not suppose for a moment.

Modernism of academies.

The academy is comparatively a modern institution. Of the 207 reporting to the Regents only 13 date their incorporation in the last century, the oldest being established in 1787, while 138 have been founded since 1840. Their endowment has generally come from private sources, and municipal liberality has not unfrequently enriched them with buildings, libraries, and apparatus. It is a curious form that the general interest in education sometimes takes in America, that towns, and even railway companies, will make handsome bids of money or other advantages to entice a projected institution to their locality—whether always from a direct educational motive, or in the prospect of some reflex commercial benefit, I am not prepared to say.

Albany academy.

The academy of which I saw most was that for boys at Albany. The building, which is substantial and suitable, was raised about 50 years ago by subscriptions, supplemented by a donation from the city. It is excellently furnished with philosophical apparatus, carefully kept in glazed cabinets. It is under the management of 16 trustees, who appoint the Principal and other teachers. There are 10 teachers, of whom one is a female. It is divided into two departments, a preparatory and an academic. It is only in respect of the latter that it can draw money from the State "Literature Fund," a resource of income amounting to about $250 a year. The total annual cost is about $9,000, of which $7,500 goes to pay salaries of teachers. There is an excess of revenue over expenditure, the fees from pupils alone amounting to nearly $10,000. Boys can enter at any age, and in the preparatory department at any point of preparation. Owing to this peculiar feature this academy somewhat interferes with the gradation and completeness of the common school system, and instead

are attached to particular religious bodies or represent particular phases of religious opinion. Of the 23 female seminaries in Ohio

religious bodies.

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of being content simply to take the place of a high school, which does not otherwise exist in Albany, it really does the work of a primary school too. In the preparatory department there are about 120 scholars, divided into four classes; in the academic about 150, divided into five classes. The average age of these latter, as reported to the Regents, is 16. About 50 read Latin, about 35 Latin and Greek; the rest take only a general English course. French is taught, but not very successfully; the number of other subjects, as the phrase is, "crowd it out." I was informed that the study of languages is pursued with more vigour in provincial academies. In those in cities a more practical education is demanded. One scholar from each district school in the city is educated gratuitously, admitted, I presume, by examination. The vacations are, nine weeks in the summer, commencing with the last Friday in June, and one week at Christmas. The daily session is from 9 to 2, with a quarter of an hour's recess. Saturday is a whole holiday.

Condition of these academies hardly satisfactory to the Regents.

The Board of Regents do not appear to be quite satisfied with the condition of these academies, nor with the principle on which the aid of the State is apportioned to them. It is simply at so much—in 1864, at $1.85—per scholar, according to the number returned as pursuing a particular department of study. "Neither merit in learning, nor proficiency and merit in instruction, "are allowed to enter as an element in the mode of distribution. The Regents "suggest the expediency of making the distribution depend upon merit, as "ascertained by competition and comparative examination, upon which might "be made to depend also promotions and honours, in the form of scholarships "and fellowships in the colleges, which would be sought with enlightened "emulation as honourable distinctions, and also as a positive evidence of actual "merit. It is the system of State competitive examinations which gives to "public education in Europe much of *that thoroughness and exactness which is* "*wanting in this country*, and without which schools fail everywhere to produce "their highest results. . . . . The free academies of New York, Troy, Utica, "Syracuse, Rochester, and Buffalo, receiving their pupils by promotion from "the common schools on competitive and comparative examinations, and by "similar examinations advancing them to the higher grades of an established "curriculum, exhibit in a most favourable light the salutary effect of such "examinations, not only in the direct power of these higher institutions, but "also in their reflex influence upon the common schools in stimulating a "laudable emulation, and on public opinion among their pupils in favour of "careful study, intelligent progress, and good order." (*77th Annual Report*, pp. 19-22.)

Competitive examinations recommended.

No doubt the cause of "thoroughness and exactness" would be much promoted by examination, perhaps also as much more by cutting down the extravagant programme of studies with a somewhat ruthless hand. But it seems to me that to carry out these ideas and effectuate these reforms it would be necessary to entirely remodel the constitution of these academies, and to bring them into organic connexion with the common school-system, as is the case with the New York Free Academy, which is quoted as a pattern, and to oblige them to descend from the position which they now occupy as independent, and, in a certain sense, superior institutions.

Classes in the science of teaching.

The Secretary of the Board of Education in Massachusetts expresses a wish that the New York arrangement for forming classes in the science of teaching in certain selected academies were imitated in his own State: "Such an arrangement "with those academies which are within convenient distances of those portions "of the Commonwealth least favoured with public schools of the higher grades "would do much towards meeting *the constantly increasing and deeply felt want* "*of teachers of higher qualifications* for the common schools, and towards "elevating their character and condition." (*28th Report*, p. 63.) It appears, on the same authority, that the 59 academies in Massachusetts, with their 3,169 scholars, received in the year 1864 $55,508 from local appropriations, and $76,593 from school fees. This gives an average appropriation of about $900 per academy, and an average tuition fee of $24 per scholar. The 16,124 pupils

Academies in Massachusetts,

13 appear to be presided over by clergymen, or at least by ten "reverends" and three graduates in divinity. The Roman Catholics are well known to have a predilection for separate schools, and the titles of many of the academies and colleges indicate that they belong to that communion, which is inferior in zeal to none in the States for an education after its own kind. The "religious" or "denominational" question, therefore, in America as well as in England, affects the constitution of schools and the character of education in some, though, as has been observed, in a very insignificant degree.

Relation between the academy and the common schools.

The true and normal relation between the college and the academy and the common school cannot, perhaps, be better put than it is by Mr. E. E. White, the able Commissioner of Common Schools for the State of Ohio: "Between the college and the "common school," he says, "there is a mutual dependence and "essential unity. The public high school creates a wider demand "for higher instruction, and the more completely and thoroughly "it does its work the higher and broader will be the work of the "college. The college, on the other hand, supplies the common "school with materials for a larger success, and invites it to a

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in the private schools paid $317,477 in tuition fees, an average of not quite $20 each. (*Ibid.* p. 59.)

in Pennsylvania.

In Pennsylvania it is reported that incorporated academies are diminishing in number. "Some have failed from want of patronage, and the buildings "and lands of others have been transferred by the trustees to the directors of "the common school boards in the districts where they are located, and are "now used for graded schools." It is considered that there is already more than enough of academies and seminaries of the class which now exists. What the educational system does require is "a few more academies well "endowed and well patronized, so that they will support a good corps of "teachers of the first grade, and thoroughly qualify pupils of both sexes for "any position in life, and prepare young men for entrance into the best "colleges in the land. Such higher institutions we do need for those who "desire to pursue a classical course and prepare for college, and cannot have "the opportunity of the high schools in our cities and large towns; but we do "not require such a multiplicity of private institutions as we have in the State, "pursuing studies that are or should be taught in almost every common "school, and drawing from the common schools the very influence and sup-"port they should have. It is not probable that more than one-eighth of the "students in the academies and seminaries pass on through a college course." (Abridged from *Pennsylvania Report for* 1864, pp. 33, 34.)

New York Commissioners' opinion of academies.

The School Commissioners in New York State were specially requested to report on the condition of the academies in their respective districts, and in most instances they have done so. Their accounts, drawn, however, apparently more from hearsay and impressions than from actual examination, to which I am not aware that the academies are legally subject at their hands, are very fluctuating. Some appear to be healthy and working well, others to be sickly and doing more harm than good. Those that have classes for instruction in the science of teaching seem to be the most useful. The following picture is very likely to be accurate:—"The teachers of this district principally resort to these "institutions, and from them we get our best-drilled and most successful "instructors. The primary branches, however, are much neglected. Increased "rates of tuition, and a desire to secure a large share of the funds appropriated "by the State to the support of academies, is an incentive to urge to the too "early study of the higher mathematics and languages." (*N. Y. 11th Report*, p. 287.) And so the house is built upon the sand.

" grander work and a nobler destiny. Female seminaries that aim
" at thorough and liberal education sustain a relation to public
" instruction similar to that sustained by the college.

" Nor is there any antagonism between the academy and the
" common school. The true function of the academy is to com-
" plete what public instruction fails to accomplish in a satisfactory
" manner, in other words, to supply its defects. Whenever the
" common school does its work perfectly the duplication of that
" work will not, of course, be found profitable. There are, how-
" ever, certain natural limitations to public instruction, arising from
" sparseness of population and other causes, that will always make
" a demand for a limited number of academies of a high order."*

Size of schools

It is impossible to fix upon any number which shall indicate the average size of a common school. Indeed the extremes are so far apart, that to take the arithmetical mean would be of no value for any practical purpose; and this is equally true of rural districts and of cities and towns. In the city of New York I visited one school building in which there are ordinarily gathered together in its three departments, every day, about 2,500 children. I observe, in the tabulated statistics, others, also in three grades, where the daily attendance does not exceed 500; one, in two grades, where it does not reach 100.

and of classes.

But though it is thus useless to attempt to measure by any average the size of *schools*, it is not difficult to measure the size of *classes*, and the proportion of scholars assigned to a single teacher, because this is a matter generally determined by rule. The classes in the lower grades are allowed to exceed the average, and those in the higher grades fall below it; but, speaking generally, it appears to be the received opinion in America that one teacher to 50 pupils is a just proportion.† Of course, with such numbers,

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* *Ohio Eleventh Report*, p. 41.

Size of classes in New York,

† In New York city there is a minimum limit, but I do not find a maximum. No teacher is to appointed by the local trustees, unless the average attendance of pupils is equal to 30 to each teacher in a grammar school, and equal to 45 to each teacher in a primary school. In the Free Academy "the students in " each full course of the first three years are to be divided, as nearly as may " be practicable, into sections of 35, and in the other classes of 40 students " for the purpose of recitation, and no class is to be organized with less than " 20 students."

in Boston,

In Boston the maximum number allowed to a teacher in a primary school is 56; the same number in a grammar school, with permission to appoint an additional female assistant whenever there are "30 scholars above the em- " ployment for the teachers already in the school." In the English and Latin high schools one instructor is assigned to every 35 pupils; in the Girls' High School the ratio is not to exceed one teacher for every 30 pupils.

in Cincinnati.

In Cincinnati " no additional teacher is to be appointed to any school unless " there be an excess of 45 pupils over and above an average daily attendance " of 45 to each teacher in the district, exclusive of the principal."

In Boston the actual average in 1863–4 of teachers to scholars was 1 to 50. In 1855 it was as 1 to 59.—(*Report for* 1864, p. 288.) At Cincinnati there were employed in the High School 10 teachers for an average attendance of 278, and in the district schools 202 teachers for an average attendance of 9,724.

Simultaneity.

But here again averages are uncertain guides. In the large New York school, referred to in the text, I saw primary classes of 80 all being taught at once by

Effects of the system of grading.

individual instruction is impracticable to any extent, and indeed can hardly be said to be attempted. The class is the unit. In a perfectly graded school each member is supposed to be advanced to exactly the same point, and to be capable of receiving exactly the same instruction. The theory, too, is that each scholar is equally advanced in all the studies of his grade.* As a general rule the whole class is, or ought to be, promoted at once.† There are advantages in this system, and there are disadvantages. The great advantage is the facilitation thus afforded to the teacher. It is eminently what the Americans are so fond of, a "labour-saving" contrivance. The great disadvantage is that common to all simultaneous methods, it is indiscriminating. The teaching is directed to the quicker scholars, and the slower are swept off their feet and carried upwards and onwards like a weak man by the impetuous rush of a crowd. I suspect that this want of individual teaching in the lower and larger classes is the great cause of that want of thorough grounding which is so much complained of in the higher and smaller classes. Perfection of grading *may* merely mean perfection of mechanism, and mechanism is incompatible with individuality because it excludes conscious independent effort.

Loss of individuality.

And the evil does not end with the school. "There is no "general independence of thought and opinion in the States," writes an American himself; "everybody is tied to the platform "of his party."‡ "Je ne connais pas de pays," says De Tocqueville, "où il règne en général moins d'indépendance d'esprit et de "véritable liberté de discussion qu'en Amérique. . . Je "pense que c'est à l'action toujours croissante du despotisme de "la majorité aux États-Unis qu'il faut surtout attribuer le petit "nombre d'hommes remarquables qui s'y montrent aujourd'hui "sur la scène politique."§ Now that I reflect upon what I observed, and try to revive my impressions of American schools, the fact that strikes me most is how few figures of individual boys or girls present themselves to my memory. I can recollect individual teachers by the score, but the taught only come before my mind's eye in the mass. The grand defect of all which

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a single teacher. At a grammar school in Newhaven I saw a writing lesson being given to 108 children at the same time. It is true there were two supervising mistresses; but the theory of the lesson was that every child should be engaged, not only on the same copy and the same line and the same word, but upon the same letter, and, if possible, upon the same part of the letter—the same curve, or upstroke or downstroke—at the same moment of time. The principle of simultaneity could hardly go farther.

* "The advantages which will accrue from this classification of studies is obvious. The teacher or parent can tell the scholar's proficiency in *all* his studies by knowing his advancement in any one. The different schools can be readily compared with one another in respect of scholarship by a glance at the number of scholars reported in each of the grades."—(*Superintendent of St. Louis Schools, Report*, p. 64.)

† "As far as practicable, the promotions should be made *by classes* at the close of the quarter, though particularly meritorious and capable pupils should receive promotion irrespective of their classes."—(*Ibid.* p. 66.)

‡ *Nichols' Forty Years in America*, vol. i. p. 326.

§ *De Tocqueville*, i. pp. 307, 310.

I should venture to signalize in the American system is, that it ignores, if it does not smother, individuality.*

As a general rule, in all grades below the high school, the teachers instruct by classes; in the high school itself, by subjects. The former method is called the "class" system, the latter the "departmental."† The practice, however, is not uniform. It is so in New York; but in Boston the class system is carried, at any rate, into the English and Latin high schools, and a mixed system prevails in the Girls' High School; and at Cincinnati the departmental system begins in the intermediate schools. Mr. Philbrick considers the class system preferable for such an institution as the Boston English High School, though he admits that the principal high schools in Europe and some of the most important in America are conducted on the departmental plan. I should have thought myself that when scholars are advanced to a higher and wider range of subjects it would be a matter of considerable difficulty to meet with teachers competent to instruct with equal efficiency in all, and that, therefore, the departmental method, which is merely an application of the principle of the division of labour, would become a necessity; but I should be sorry to set my *à priori* impression against the evidence of results that are pronounced to have been "entirely satisfactory" for upwards of 40 years.‡ Mode of teaching.

In the large schools of Chicago, in some of which there is an average attendance of 1,000 scholars, the principle of parallel or co-ordinate classes under different teachers is adopted, a plan similar to that which prevails, I know not whether from the same motives, at Cheltenham College among ourselves.§ The Chicago Co-ordination in Chicago.

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* I do not mean by "individuality" the same thing as De Tocqueville means by "individualisme," which he considers to be the natural product of an age of equality, and which he thus defines:—"L'individualisme est un "sentiment reflechi et paisible qui dispose chaque citoyen à s'isoler de la "masse de ses semblables, et à se retirer à l'écart avec sa famille et ses amis, de "telle sorte que, après s'être ainsi créé une petite société à son usage, il "abandonne volontiers la grande société à elle-même."—(vol. ii. p. 110.) This is merely a form of selfishness, or as a Greek would have called it, of social or political ἀπραγμοσύνη. By "individuality" I mean the development of individual abilities and character. Individualism and individuality.

† I cannot do better than let the Superintendent of the Boston Schools describe the two plans:—"This plan of organization is called the class system, "because each teacher, under the general direction and control of the Principal, "has the government and instruction of a class for a certain period—in this "case a year—giving instruction in all the branches which are studied during "that period. The departmental system requires a very different manage-"ment. Its type is found in our colleges, where each teacher instructs in a "single branch, or in a group of kindred branches. The pupils are under the "immediate government of the Principal. They are seated in a common study "room, where they remain when not engaged in recitation. From this room "they are sent to several recitation rooms during the day, where they receive "instruction from the teachers of the several departments of the course."—(*Boston Report for* 1864, p. 171.) The class and departmental system.

‡ *Ibid.* p. 172.

§ The plan of co-ordination exists also in Boston in the *lower classes* of some of the larger grammar schools. It is an arrangement not preferred on its own account, but adopted where the system of graduation would produce classes too large to be handled successfully by a single teacher. Co-ordination in Boston.

schools were not in session at the period of my visit, so I had no opportunity of observing the working of the arrangements. I have examined at Cheltenham College, and it did not approve itself to my judgment as a happy contrivance there.

Classification of grammar schools.

By the Boston "regulations" each grammar school is divided into four classes, and each class consists of two or more divisions, each of which pursues the studies and uses the text books proper to the class.* Sometimes a class is divided into as many as six sections, depending, of course, upon the number of scholars belonging to it. The general rule is to have a separate teacher and a separate room for each division; but there are cases in which two teachers would have charge of one division, and others in which two divisions would be under the charge of one teacher. Though studying the same text books there would, in most instances, be a gradation in the divisions of the same class; but where the divisions are numerous, there probably the principle of co-ordination is applied. In other places, as at Providence, each class is divided into two sections, the one subordinate to the other.† The teacher would be the same for both, and the one half would recite while the other half are studying, both divisions occupying the same room.

The school day.

The ordinary school day consists of six hours, but different arrangements of time prevail in different cities and even in different schools of the same city.‡ In Boston the division of the day into

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* *Boston School Regulations*, ch. x. s. 8.

Number of divisions in a class variable.

† "As a general rule, the pupils assigned to each teacher in the grammar "department, that is, the four highest grades, should be divided into two "classes, in the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grades into three classes, and "in the ninth and tenth grades into four. The number of pupils in a division, "or other circumstances, may make it desirable in certain cases to depart from "this arrangement. It is desirable that each class in the grammar department "should not number more than 20 or 25 pupils, and each class in the lower "grades not more than 10 or 15 pupils. This arrangement is impracticable "where a division numbers more than 40 or 50 pupils."—(*Wells on Graded Schools*, p. 32.) A good deal of difficulty is occasioned to an inquirer by the confused nomenclature of the American system. The word "grade" is sometimes used as equivalent to "department," sometimes as including no more than the word "class." Mr. Wells, in the passage just quoted, inverts the Boston terminology; the Boston "class" is his "division," and the Boston "division" is his "class."

School hours in Boston,

‡ The Boston hours are, morning session, in summer from 8 to 11 a.m.; in winter, from 9 to 12 a.m. Afternoon session, in summer, from 2 to 5; in winter, from 2 to 4. Twenty minutes are allowed for "recess" in the morning session, and also in that of the afternoon, when the hours are from 2 to 5. The hours of the three high schools, however, differ, and are on the New York plan—one long session from 9 to 2, on Saturdays terminating at 1. Half an hour is allowed for recess, and an interval of three minutes between each recitation.

in New York,

In New York the hours in most of the ward schools are continuous, from 9 to 3, with two recesses, one of a quarter of an hour or 20 minutes at 10.30 or 10.45, the other of three-quarters of an hour to an hour, terminating at half-past one. During the long recess many of the children who live in the neighbourhood go home to dinner, the rest spend the time in the playground. Besides the open yard, the ground floor of most of the buildings is occupied by a covered play-room for each sex's use in wet weather. Most of the children whom you see going to school in the streets of New York are provided with a luncheon-box in addition to their little bundle of books tidily strapped together. Neatness and order, at any rate in the cities, are great characteristics of all American school arrangements.

two sessions of three hours each is preferred; in New York the more usual plan is to have one continuous session of five or six hours, interrupted at intervals by a recess. I observed in New York that, whether for the sake of purer air or on account of the greater cheapness of house rent, many of the teachers reside in the suburbs; and to them, no doubt, a continuous session, enabling them to finish the work of the day by three o'clock, would be more convenient than a divided one. But remembering the intensity with which American teachers teach and American scholars learn, I cannot help thinking that the Boston arrangement, which in the heat of summer allows a three hours' interval between the morning session and that of the afternoon, must be more conducive to health, and so to progress. Even in Boston there are complaints of the physical ill effects of "high pressure," and the urging system pursued by some teachers is strongly reprobated in the Superintendent's two last semi-annual Reports; nor can there be any doubt that everywhere, at least in the city schools, a severe strain is put upon the physical strength both of teachers and pupils, particularly in the girls' schools. And this strain, I fancied, seemed to be felt even more in New York than in Boston. There appeared to me to be a more vigorous tone in the schools of the latter city, more spring and elasticity and animal spirits; and I remember very distinctly in a New York school, at the close of one of those

Preference for the Boston arrangement.

In Philadelphia the hours are from 8.30 a.m. to 11.30, and again from 2 to 4.30 p.m.; but if the day is stormy a five hours' continuous session is substituted, and on such days I suppose children are expected to come provided with something to eat during the recess. in Philadelphia.

At Detroit, owing to the pressure for room in the primary schools, and the deficiency of accommodation, a half-time system has been adopted for the last year or two, the results of which are thus reported by the Superintendent:— Half time in Detroit.

"The working of this system during the past year has been highly satisfactory. "Some of the finest primary classes I have ever seen in Detroit have been trained "in these schools since the introduction of the system. I regard it as a well- "established fact that children in these schools, other things being equal, make "as good progress in the course of study as in the whole-day schools. It was "feared at the outset that the half-day's absence would render them wild and "intractable in school during the remainder of the time. This fear has not "been realized. The half-day schools are quite as orderly and easy of manage- "ment as others. The system has proved a very great relief where the schools "are overcrowded. I have lately heard few complaints against it, except on "the part of parents who are desirous that their children should be kept out "of the way during a larger portion of the day. I am aware that, with the "poor, in cases where the parents are sometimes out at labour during the day, "this is almost a necessity; but it is evident, nevertheless, that the first duty "of the Board of Education is to provide proper instruction for the largest "possible number of the children of the city. Relieving parents of the care of "them may be important in many cases, but it is undoubtedly secondary to "the grander aim above mentioned. I suppose there is no member of this "board who would not rejoice in being able to provide means for keeping these "children under the care of teachers during a longer portion of each day, but "under the present circumstances it is simply impossible."—(*Detroit 22d Report*, pp. 43–4.) As Detroit is the only place in America, so far as I am aware, in which the half-time system has been tried, I thought it worth while to quote thus in full the estimate of its working. The application of it is limited to primary departments, and indeed it is obvious that it is not so suitable to the higher grades. It is strictly a *half*-day, and not (as generally with us) an *alternate*-day, system.

little addresses which, in my capacity of a visitor, I was so often called upon to make in the schools, in which I had endeavoured to explain our English system, and had spoken of the growing prevalence of the opinion that five hours of study properly distributed over the day were as much as it was prudent to attempt to get out of young people between the ages of 12 and 18, a general sigh issued from the class of girls who had been listening to me, followed by the audible expression of a wish from several that the same opinion might begin to prevail there.

Distribution of school hours.

Of these five school hours—for when the recesses have been allowed for, the school hours are reduced to even something less than five—in some schools the larger portion is devoted to recitations, and the smaller portion to study; in other schools this proportion is reversed. Of course there is less study and more recitation, comparatively, in the lower grades, and more study and less recitation in the higher grades, and in the latter more or less time is allowed for study in school hours, according to the larger or smaller number of studies that the pupil is pursuing.* In some

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Short lessons in primary schools.

* In primary schools, where the received maxim is that the lessons should be "short, many, and varied," frequently alternating with drill, marching, or calisthenic exercises, the lessons requiring preparation are few, and the time allowed to study short. I append the time table for the first class in the primary department attached (as a practising school) to the Girls' Normal School at Boston. The average age of the children was eight years.

A.M.	9. 0 — 9.15	Devotional and other exercises.	P.M.	2. 0 — 2.20	Reading.
„	9.15 — 9.35	Prepare spelling.	„	2.20 — 2.40	Prepare spelling.
„	9.35 — 9.50	Recite spelling.	„	2.40 — 3. 0	General lesson, geography, &c.
„	9.50 — 10.10	Exercise in numbers, adding, subtracting.		Recess of 5 minutes.	
			„	3. 5 — 3.25	Recite spelling.
„	10.10 — 10.30	Writing on slates	„	3.25 — 3.40	Slate exercise.
	Recess of 20 minutes.		„	3.40 — 4. 0	Numbers.
„	10.50 — 11.10	Object lesson.			
„	11.10 — 11.25	Reproduce numbers on slates.			
„	11.25 — 11.40	Reading.			
„	11.40 — 12. 0	Singing, silent study, or writing.			

Arrangements at West Roxbury.

In West Roxbury high school, Massachusetts, the ordinary division of the day was—three hours for recitation, two and a half hours for study, half an hour for recess, one to two hours' home work.

Boston Latin high school.

At the Boston Latin high school, about one-third of the time is occupied in recitation, two-thirds in study, Home lessons for the three lower classes do not exceed an hour, nor for the three upper classes are they intended to exceed two hours.

Boston girls' high school.

In the same city, at the girls' high school, I heard a lesson—three stanzas of Hor. Od. i. 2—which had been prepared at home and had occupied an hour. Certain studies in this school, *ex. gr.* Latin and German, are optional. If a girl pursues the whole course, she would only have one hour a day for study in school, and would therefore be required to spend more time in preparing her work at home. Those who restrict themselves to the narrower programme would have four hours a week for study in school more. The rule in this school is to have five recitations in a session—from 9 to 2—occupying each from three quarters of an hour to an hour. The lessons are so arranged that only two shall have to be prepared each day at home; and as

schools, as at Cincinnati, the study and the recitation rooms are different; in other schools—and this is the general rule—they are the same, the class that occupies the room being divided into two sections, one engaged in preparation while the other is reciting. Assistance, varying in amount according to the nature of the subject, and sometimes, but not so often, according to the requirements of the individual scholar, is given by the teacher when lessons are being prepared under his own eye; and the general theory is that the lessons prepared in school are such as are likely to require such assistance, while those taken home are such as chiefly call into play the faculty of memory.

Rule about home lessons in Boston,

It is the Boston rule that no home lessons should be given to children in the primary schools, and none also to *girls* in the grammar schools; nor is a longer lesson to be assigned daily "than a boy of good capacity can acquire by an hour's study;" and out-of-school lessons on Saturday are prohibited.

in New York.

The New York rule is equally strict with regard to primary schools, and forbids any text book being taken from the school except by pupils in the two higher classes; while, with regard to grammar schools, the regulation is that no home lesson shall be given until it has been sufficiently explained and illustrated by the teacher to the class; nor shall the lessons assigned be such as to require, in the case of a child of average capacity, a longer period of study than two hours. The New York system does not distinguish, as does the Boston, between the physical capacity for work of boys and girls.

Rules to prevent overstraining.

It is a peremptory rule in Boston, not however always observed, that scholars shall not be allowed to occupy with study the time allowed for recess. Another important direction is that the lessons which require most attention and thought should come early in the forenoon, while the mind is in the freshness of its power. Certainly every precaution that prudence could suggest appears to have been taken both by the devisers and administrators of the system, that neither the mental nor the physical powers of the pupil should be overstrained; but I am afraid only with very partial success.* Something, possibly, is to be set down to climatic influences: and still more to natural temperament.

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a basis of the time table the case of those is taken who do not study Latin or German. Some girls study both, but the rule is that a pupil is not allowed to take either unless she is doing well in her other work.

In Providence, home lessons are not set below the upper classes of the grammar schools.

Rules not observed.

* Mr. Philbrick complains that these excellent rules are so often violated. "The provision that prohibits out-of-school lessons for girls should be sacredly "regarded. It is now violated both directly and indirectly. In some schools "it is put to the vote of the children to decide whether they will consent to get "lessons out of school. Is this right? Of course the pupils will vote as their "teachers wish them to do. The provision is violated indirectly by permitting "or requiring pupils to come before school hours and remain after school "hours, for the purpose of learning their lessons. The rule in regard to "recess is violated. Pupils are permitted or required to study at recess, "instead of occupying the time prescribed in exercise and recreation. Nor

Americans generally are very susceptible of the motives of ambition, and do all their work with an intensity which has no parallel among us more phlegmatic Englishmen; to use a common and expressive phrase, they "take twice as much out of themselves" in the same time as an ordinary English school boy or school girl would do. The result is exciting serious apprehensions in many far-seeing minds.*

Excellent methods in primary schools.

This evil developes itself much more prominently in the grammar and high schools than in those of the lower grade. To my judgment nothing appeared more admirable in the whole of the American school system than the organization and conduct of the primary schools. I was told, and I see the same statement repeated again and again in the reports, that there is more inefficiency in the teachers of primary schools than in those of any other department. It may be, probably is, so; but I speak of the primary school as it is in the hands of such teachers as Miss Stickney, of the Boston practising school, or of Miss Myers, Principal of the primary department of Ward School No. 14 in New York. The way in which object lessons are used by Miss Stickney to quicken observation and stimulate intelligence is most

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"is the provision requiring gymnastic exercises each half day, and which "might, by a liberal construction of its language, permit such exercises twice "each session, generally complied with; if it were faithfully carried out in all "the departments of every school, it would operate very powerfully both in "preventing and in counteracting the effects of the 'high-pressure' system." (*Boston Report* for 1864, p. 117.)—If all scholars belong to one or other of two classes, of which "alter eget frænis, alter calcaribus," it is easy to see to which class American school children must be assigned.

Serious apprehension of mischief.

* "A visit to the school rooms throughout the city will reveal at a glance "to the practised eye where these palpable violations of the laws of health "are insisted on. It can be seen in the rounded backs and hollow cheeks, in "the sallow complexions, the lack-lustre of the eyes, and in the listless posé "of the occupants of the desks. Nothing is more certain, within the sphere "of medical knowledge and observation, than that a persistent and long-con-"tinued overworking of the brain produces deterioration of the blood, and all "its train of attendant physical evils, as surely as an inadequate supply of "nourishment, or a too long exposure to unfavourable hygienic influences, of "whatever nature; and when this straining of the mental powers is accom-"panied, as is too often the case, with a high temperature and an insufficient "and vitiated atmosphere, the degeneration is doubly accelerated. Nor is the "physical health alone endangered by such excesses. Says Dr. Ray, a most "eminent authority on such matters: 'Among the remoter agencies in the "production of mental disease, I doubt if any one, except hereditary defects, "is more common at the present time than excessive application of the mind "when young.' There is no doubt something in the very nature and com-"position of our climate that renders these habits of the children of the present "day more hazardous to the future well being of the mature man or woman in "America than almost anywhere else upon the civilized globe. Says the dis-"tinguished authority already quoted: 'The remarkable nervous excitability "of our people, as indicated by restlessness, impulsiveness, impetuous and "boisterous movement, is probably due to this cause, and is strikingly mani-"fested in the insanity of this country as compared with that of others." (*Boston School Committee's Report* for 1864, pp. 47-49.) I did not myself notice many "lack-lustre eyes," or much "listless posé." The symptoms that struck me were just the contrary—a hectic, flashing brilliancy of the pupil of the eye, and an intense, quivering energy of the whole nervous system, plainly visible in the tremulous motion of the thin eagerly-extended hands.

interesting;* and the discipline by which those 1,200 or 1,400 little restless 'primarians'—as Mr. Philbrick calls them—are moved and controlled by Miss Myers, as though they were all possessed but by one will and moved but by one set of muscles, was the most wonderful spectacle of the kind that I ever beheld.†

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* Object teaching was first introduced, I understand, on the other side of the Atlantic, not more than three or four years ago, into the schools of Oswego, New York, by Miss Jones, who was specially imported by some liberal promoters of schools from the Home and Colonial Society's Institution in London for the purpose. I believe that Miss Jones did not remain more than twelve months in America; but her method has struck its roots deeply into the soil, and has become a universal feature in the instruction of primary schools. Miss Stickney frankly confesses that she owes all she knows in the matter to Miss Jones, and speaks in the highest terms of the method as conducing, above all others, to promote general intelligence and inquisitiveness of mind. Object teaching, was only introduced in 1863 into the programme of the Boston Primary Schools. (See *Report* for 1864, p. 104.) Its beneficial results are admitted on all hands. But here, as elsewhere, indeed more than elsewhere, all depends on the skill of the teacher. Desultory, aimless object lessons, I conceive to be as unprofitable a way of occupying children's time as can be devised. Nor do I think they should be allowed to exclude or throw into the shade other methods—those, for instance, which discipline and strengthen the memory—which are no less necessary for the due and proportionate development of the youthful mind. In the hands of a lively, systematic, judicious teacher, the object lesson is an educational instrument of vast power; in the hands of one with the reverse of these qualities it is worse than a waste of time. *Corruptio optimi fit pessima.*

Object teaching.

Its advantages and disadvantages.

† I know that some competent judges consider the discipline of this school too repressive and mechanical, and produced at too large a cost of labour and time. No doubt it must have cost much time and labour to initiate it; but now that it is fairly started it can be maintained, I should think, without any great expenditure of either. A batch of fresh children—even so many as a hundred—when first joining this school, must feel themselves at once lost in the mass, and instinctively, from the mere force of imitation, doing what they see their neighbours do. The movements are simple enough; it is the precision and absolute synchronism with which they are executed that is the astonishing thing. The drill of the Brigade of Guards could not be more perfect. It did not seem to me to impose any uneasy restraint upon the children; on the contrary, nothing could exceed the spirit they threw into their manœuvres.

Perfection of drill and discipline.

On the subject of repressive discipline Mr. Philbrick has some excellent remarks. "True order consists in a quiet attention to the work of the school. "Scholars should have as much liberty as is consistent with the proper "business of the school. All restraint beyond this tends to make school dis-"tasteful. I dislike a noisy school, full of play and mischief, but I am rather "pleased to see a little primarian twist and turn in his seat, if he is doing it "unconsciously, while really engaged about his work. I do not say that a "class standing at recitation should not be made to 'toe the line,' but I like "to see their hands left free. I wish all teachers would fairly try the experi-"ment of free hands as a general rule. Perhaps all would not succeed, but I "think some might." (*Boston Report*, 1864, p. 135.)

Mr. Philbrick on repressive discipline.

The Boston discipline must strike any observer as something very different from that of New York. The coup d'œil of a Boston school is much less brilliant, the symmetry of movement less perfect, the light springing step of the boys, the "glissade" of the girls, more rare. Perhaps the difference is in a great measure owing to the rarer use of the assembly room for the purpose of aggregating the children together, and to the more infrequent presence and employment of pianos. In Miss Myers' school every movement, every gesture, is indicated by the instrument.

Contrast between Boston and New York schools.

With the habits and tempers of English children, particularly of English

Age of entrance, and programme of primary schools.

The ordinary age at which children enter the primary school at Boston is five, and by eight they ought to be ready to be promoted to the grammar grade. In New York the children seem to enter a year earlier and to remain a year or even two years longer. At Boston, if a "primarian" is not ready for promotion in three years, he is transferred to the "intermediate" school, whose special function it is to deal with the bigger, duller, or more neglected children. The programme of the primary school is very simple. It merely embraces the subjects of reading, spelling, ciphering—chiefly mental calculation—writing (on slates), singing, object lessons and physical exercises. When a pupil can "read at first "sight easy prose; can spell common words of one, two, or three "syllables; can distinguish and name the marks of punctuation; "can perform mentally simple questions in addition, subtraction, "and division; can answer readily to any proposed combinations "of the multiplication table in which neither factor exceeds 10; "can read and write Arabic numbers containing three figures, and "the Roman numerals as far as the sign of 100, and can enunciate "clearly and accurately the elementary sounds of the language,"*

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boys, it would be quite hopeless to attempt to introduce anything like this sort of discipline into our schools, yet it is a powerful auxiliary of order.

Recent establishment of primary schools.

* *Rules and Regulations of Boston School Committee*, ch. x. s. 4. It is mentioned in the report for 1864 (p. 23), as a curious fact, that the primary school is comparatively a modern institution. "The apex of the pyramid was "planned and perfected long before its solid foundations were at all considered "or provided for." The Latin school was founded in 1635, the grammar school system established in 1682, the primary school was not introduced till 1818. Not till 1854 were they placed under the control of the general School Committee. It is within the last ten years that the present admirable system has been developed and perfected. The schools are now thoroughly classified, and each class is placed under the charge of a separate teacher. It is now considered as important to have good school rooms and good desk and seat accommodation for "primarians" as for scholars of any other grade. The

Their methods.

course of study is defined by a rigid programme. This I will reserve for an appendix, but I may briefly here signalize some of the chief principles and methods of instruction which, under the direction of the experienced Superintendent, are carried out in the Boston primary schools.

Use of the slate.

The slate is used for printing, drawing, and writing. On the broad, flat wooden frame are pasted strips of coloured paper, on which are printed alphabets (both print and script), numerals (Arabic and Roman), marks of punctuation, simple geometrical figures, &c., which serve as copies. In teaching writing or printing, "each letter should be taught by itself, beginning with those which "are simplest in form. The great point is to make the pupil see what the "form is. This is done by comparing the various errors in form with the true "form. For example, take the letter H in the print form; make a model "letter on the board or show it on the tablet, and require the pupils to find it "on their slate frames. They are next required to imitate it. Then proceed to "illustrate the faults. Make the letter with the vertical lines too far apart, "too near together, one oblique, both oblique but parallel, both oblique but "not parallel, the cross line too high up, too low down, oblique. In this way "every letter to be printed or written and every figure to be drawn should be "taught. This is the short, time-saving method; more can be accomplished by "it in one hour than in ten hours by merely telling the children to imitate "their copy."

Teaching the alphabet.

The alphabet is almost universally taught in America by the "phonic method." "The first day the child enters school he should commence on the "elementary sounds, by hearing his teacher utter some of them, and then

he is considered fit to be promoted to the grammar school, and is promoted accordingly. I cannot give a better account than

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" trying to imitate her. The *sounds* of the letters should be always taught " with their *names*, and in the first steps of reading words and sentences every " word should be *spelt by sound* as well as by letters, that is, it should be " analysed, each elementary sound being uttered by itself. This course might " be continued, perhaps, through the first book, and subsequently, whenever a " new or difficult word is met with, it should be treated in the same way. This " should be done both in the reading and spelling lessons."

Reading.

Great stress is laid upon making children understand the sense of what they read. " It is time worse than wasted to attempt to make pupils read with " expression, when they have no distinct idea of the meaning of the words " which compose the lesson. Young children should not be called on to give " formal *definitions*, but the teacher should picture out the lesson by ingenious " questions, illustrations, and explanations. The reading lesson should be " used as a means of intellectual training and imparting information. Children " must be drilled, of course, in calling words at sight, without regard to their " meaning; but this is not the whole of reading, it is only a small part " of it."

Spelling.

" The spelling lesson should always be read aloud by the class before it is " given out for study. It is best to require the pupils to read the words in turn. " . . . If a child fails on a word, he should be made to spell the word *by sound*. . . " When a word occurs which is pronounced like some other word which is spelt " differently, both words should be written on the black board, and the difference " in the meaning and orthography noticed."

Arithmetic.

" The numerical frame should be constantly used. Before the child is made " to repeat the formula that ' four and three are seven,' he should be made to " *see* that four things and three things are seven things. Much more time should " be spent with concrete numbers than with abstract. . . . The first steps " of addition and subtraction should be taught together, and so of multiplica- " tion and division." (*Boston Report*, 1864, pp. 106-110.)

Spelling in the schools of Providence.

The Providence schools have a high character for the accuracy of their spelling. One of the professors of Brown University told me that he noticed a marked superiority in this respect in students who had been educated in the Providence schools to those educated elsewhere. There is a coloured intermediate school whose performances are quite wonderful in this way. Mr. Northrop, the agent of the Board of Education in Massachusetts, has mentioned in one of his reports the fact of his setting the children in this school 75 of the hardest words he could find in their spelling book, and of their being spelt without a mistake. I saw something of a similar kind myself. I don't think the phonic method is used in Providence. The ancient method by spelling books, of trusting to the eye and memory, is preferred. Words are spelt fluently and correctly of the meaning of which the speller has not the remotest notion. I heard a little girl of eight spell without a fault " impermeability," " stereotypography," " parallelepipedon." She was not, however, nearly so quick, when I dissected the words, in spelling " permeate," " typography," " parallel." A certain amount of mechanical process, I believe, is necessary in teaching both reading and spelling, but I thought the Providence method, though producing some marvellous results, a little *too* mechanical.

In a Massachusetts Report it is noticed that children learn to spell with much greater ease from books where the words are arranged in columns than where they are thrown together, after " a comparatively recent method," in paragraphs. (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 90.)

Americans not said to be good spellers.

Good spelling is not said to be the forte of Americans generally. New York commissioners who examine teachers constantly report their sins against orthography.—(*N.Y. 11th Report*, p. 300, 297.) " I find them most deficient " in orthography."—(p. 291.) " They are mostly deficient in grammar and " orthography."—(p. 281.) " They are most deficient in spelling and reading." —(p. 272, 259.) School committees in Massachusetts repeat the complaint.— (See *28th Report*, p. 127, 190.) " We find applicants for admission to the " high school more deficient in spelling than in any other branch." In some

this of the estimate which the American system forms of the legitimate intellectual attainments of a child of eight or nine years of age. No one can say that it is extravagant or impracticable. If the statement already quoted be true, as I have no reason to doubt, of the large number of "primarians" who never reach the secondary grade, it is a standard that is, perhaps, as often missed in America as amongst ourselves, but, at least, it cannot be said that it is pitched extravagantly high.*

Primary teachers in New York and Boston.

It is noticed in the New York Report that a practice prevails there, which is justly reprobated as "pernicious," of "placing totally "inexperienced young persons in charge of the lowest classes and "youngest pupils in the primary schools."† In Boston the importance of securing the very best teaching power for such a position is fully recognized, and the salaries of teachers in primary schools are as high as those of teachers of corresponding standing in grammar schools; and the result is that "the teachers now "engaged in these schools are generally persons of excellent "education and of agreeable manners," exerting a most "happy "influence over the children placed under their charge." In Boston, when the people find they have a good public servant, they are sensible enough to wish to keep him, and they make it worth his while to stay. They do not admire that wisdom which moves an officer from a situation for which he is fitted by nature and capacity, and where he is found useful and effective, to another for which he has no natural aptitude, and will very likely fail as an administrator, and call such transference a "promotion." When they have got "the right man in the right place" they like to keep him there. And so, teachers' salaries being determined not so much by the rank of school as by length of service, and grammar schools being really rated no higher than primary schools, there can be no room for discontent, nor for that restlessness which is always looking out for an opportunity of bettering its condition.

Boston teachers keep their places.

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places, however, improvement is noted.—(*Ibid.* p. 179, 213.) I had the united testimony of the professors of West Point Military Academy that the candidates who present themselves for the admission examination as a rule are very ill prepared. The examination is only in reading, ciphering, and spelling from dictation, and it is in the last two points chiefly that their deficiencies appear.

Attainments of a primary school in New York.

* I copy my notes of the attainments of the first class of a New York primary school, the age of the children ranging between nine and ten, all boys. "Arithmetic, as far as long division; geography, North America, and general "knowledge of the world; reading, in the Third Primary Reader—not quite "so hard as an ordinary Third Reader with us; writing, on slates only; "spelling, punctuation, object lessons. No history, or grammar, or com- "position. Dictation rarely given. The reading, which I heard was loud "distinct, emphatic, and displayed a fair measure of intelligence. Arithmetical "tables were not very perfectly known. In attempting to subtract 99 from "1001, and to divide 344 by 55, a good many gave wrong answers. In finding "out, mentally, how many yards there were in half a mile very few were right. "The arithmetical attainments were not high."

This may be regarded as an average primary school. It was kept in the same building with what I was told was the best boys' grammar school in the city.

† See *N.Y. Report for* 1864, p. 74.

The maximum salary of a teacher in a Boston primary school, all being females, is $550 per annum.*

In this connexion it may not be uninteresting to describe the opening ceremonies of a New York primary school.† The children assemble in the covered play-room on the ground floor, and, having put away their caps, bonnets, cloaks, &c. in the proper receptacles, which are very conveniently arranged, they proceed to their respective class-rooms, where their teacher, who is bound to be at her post 15 minutes before the opening hour, is in readiness to receive them. The Principal of the school, meanwhile, is on her raised dais in the assembly or reception room, an apartment probably of 70 feet × 50 feet, from which she can communicate by bells with each class room. Upon the given signal from her, the classes, headed each by its teacher, march in order from their respective rooms and take their places in the assembling hall. Boys enter by one door, girls by another; and the two sexes occupy opposite sides of the room. They march with a light, elastic step, their heels hardly touching the ground, to avoid noise, to a suitable inspiriting air, played on the piano by one of the mistresses. When all are in their places the music ceases and a perfect silence ensues, broken after a moment's pause by the Principal's simple salutation, "Good morning, children," to which is made a corresponding reply. The Principal then reads a portion of Scripture, which is listened to with marked attention.‡ A few

Ceremonial of opening school.

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* *Boston Report for* 1864, p. 23.

† There is no objection to taking the finest specimen to illustrate a subject; and certainly the "ceremonial," so to call it, of the New York schools is grander and more complete than what I saw anywhere else. No doubt something is sacrificed to it. The proportions required for an assembling room which will seat from 500 to 1,500 children at once, and which is comparatively little used for other purposes, necessarily crib and confine the dimensions of the class-rooms, which are generally too crowded and too small. An average Boston class room would be four times the size.

Why a New York instance is chosen.

The ceremony of opening a grammar or high school does not essentially differ from that of a primary, except that the musical exercises would ordinarily be followed by the recitation of an essay or a declamation. In the higher grades, too, there would be less of the pantomimic element.

‡ Such, at least, was the case whenever I had the opportunity of observing. I cannot, however, attach much importance to the exercise as a means of stimulating or deepening religious impressions, or of imparting religious knowledge. The Scriptures are read in too desultory a way for that—to-day a psalm, to-morrow a passage from the Gospels, the day after a fragment of a prophet or of an Old Testament historical narrative. If a trustee or other school officer, or even a casual visitor be present, very probably he will be asked to read. I ventured sometimes to suggest whether it might not be advantageous, as it certainly would be possible, to make this Bible reading more profitable by giving it either an historical or a doctrinal continuity, by using it to develop either the Christian story, or the Christian faith, or the Christian life. But I am afraid the dread of the taint of sectarianism, the *bête noire* of American schools, would prevent that.

Religious exercises at opening school.

It is the rule of the New York Board of Education that all its public schools "shall be opened by the reading of a portion of the Holy Scriptures without "note or comment." The rule is generally observed; but in some of the districts where Roman Catholic influences are paramount, objections have been taken, nominally to the use of our "authorized version," and the consequence is that in a few schools so situated Scripture reading is abandoned.

chords are struck on the piano and the children rise with a stamp, by a perfectly simultaneous movement. The Lord's Prayer is then said, the children repeating the words after the mistress. Then comes a hymn, accompanied by the piano. Then, after a pause, perhaps will follow some secular songs of a patriotic or else of a humorous kind, the latter affording scope, occasionally, to dramatic or mimetic accompaniments.* Last of all is introduced a drill or calisthenic exercise, to which one of the teachers, or else a child called out of the mass and placed on the platform facing the rest, gives the cue. The precision, simultaneity, rapidity, energy with which all this is done, are wonderful;† and music plays as important a part in the whole performance as it probably did in an old Greek school. The opening exercises concluded, which have occupied, perhaps, 20 minutes, unless some one has been present who has been called upon to make a speech, which would prolong the ceremony proportionably, according to the amount of good counsel given or of twaddle talked, the children are marched back again, in the same order in which they came, to their class rooms, and the real teaching work of the day begins.

The grammar school.

The grammar school, though not in all places known by that name, is the grade which normally succeeds the primary. It includes children of both sexes, sometimes mixed and sometimes separate, whose ages range from eight to 17.‡ By far the largest

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There is, I believe, no rule about prayer in New York; but in Boston the regulation is that the "reading of Scripture is to be followed by the Lord's Prayer, "repeated by the teacher alone." In one New York school—a coloured school—I heard the Lord's Prayer chanted, and in the same school they sang Jackson's "Te Deum." In the Newhaven High School the master used an extempore prayer, simple, earnest, unsectarian, but with a distinct reference to the fundamental verities of the Christian scheme. The really devotional part of these opening exercises seemed to me to lie in the hymn singing, which, in some instances—though the "timbre" of the American voice is somewhat metallic—was very beautiful and touching.

Coloured children.

* Coloured children excel in these. In one of the coloured schools in New York I got a very hearty laugh out of a dramatic scene in verse acted with great humour and perfect "abandon" by a boy and girl, each about 10 years old. The general estimate formed of the capacity of coloured children is that they have retentive memories and great quickness up to a certain point; but beyond that, they cannot be got to go.

Personal cleanliness.

† The manipulatory exercises are, some of them, quite beautiful. Miss Myers' 1,400 "primarians" seemed literally "*micare digitis*," so rapid and glancing were the movements of their little hands. I may add, that scrupulous personal cleanness is a virtue, as of Americans generally, so of American school children. Even those whose attire, as I mentioned some pages back, often consisted of nothing more than a shirt and a pair of trousers, had clean hands and faces, and looked perfectly sweet and wholesome. In schools of a higher grade, and in better localities, I could not help thinking sometimes that the toilettes of the young ladies must have occupied rather too much of their time, and might possibly have the effect of keeping the children of some of their humbler neighbours out of the school. For as in America—to use the very words of my informant—"one man thinks himself pretty much as good as another," so one man, and still more perhaps one woman, does not like to be reminded by any marked contrast of dress and outward circumstances, that in spite of the theoretic equality there is still a practical difference.

Age of pupils.

‡ "The grammar-schools of Boston are for the instruction of pupils of the ages of from eight to 14 or 15 years." (*Boston Report*, 1864, p. 18.) In New

proportion of scholars who are admitted to the grammar schools never pass beyond this grade—probably not one in 20 is promoted to the high school;* so that for the mass of children the education offered and received in the grammar school is the maximum attainable. The programme of this education is considerably more ambitious in New York than it is in Boston, but in neither city did it seem to me to rank higher or to produce more solid and practical results than the system applied with so much success by the present Dean of Hereford to his well-known school at King's Somborne.

Course of instruction.

The Boston course is laid out for four classes, the New York course for six, to which in some schools there are appended two supplementary grades for girls. The Boston course comprises simply 10 subjects, spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic with book-keeping, geography, English grammar (including exercises in composition and the analysis of sentences), history of the United States, natural philosophy, drawing, and vocal music.† The New York course adds to this list algebra and astronomy; and, in the supplementary grades, geometry, ancient and modern history, rhetoric, Latin, and French or German.‡ In Boston the spirit of emulation is maintained by the annual public distribution, on what is called exhibition day, of medals and certificates of merit in the schools, at the rate of one of each to every 60 scholars.§ In New York those who pass a thorough examination in the studies prescribed for the supplementary course are entitled to a certificate of graduation.‖

York I found numbers of scholars in the grammar schools ranging in age from 15 to 17. In Boston the statistical tables show that there were in 1864, in attendance at the grammar schools, 11,347 scholars between eight and 15, and 811 over 15. In the Report of the Committee of the Boston Girls' High School, it is remarked that "another year in a good grammar school would give them "knowledge and discipline that will make their studies here easier and more "beneficial" (p. 82), and the present age of admission to the girls' high school is not under 15 nor over 19.

The complaint is sometimes heard that the grammar school is viewed and treated too much as though it was merely a stepping stone to the high school, instead of as a school with a work of its own—that work being to give "thorough and complete instruction in those important studies which are "absolutely essential in the management of practical affairs, and which form "the basis of all true education." (*Charleston, Mass., Committee, 28th Report* p. 54.)

Proportion who pass in high school.

* At Boston in 1864 the average attendance at the grammar schools was 12,601; the average attendance at the high schools was 691. The number of boys admitted that year to the Latin high school was only 57; to the English high school, including those admitted on trial, 138. In New York, in a grammar school of 850 boys, said to be the best in the city, I found a class of 55, an unusually large proportion, preparing for the examination of the Free Academy. Similar results are attained by comparing the number of scholars in the several classes of the grammar schools themselves. Thus at Boston, on July 31, 1864, there were 4,389 in the fourth or lowest class; 3,317 in the third; 2,499 in the second; 1,854 in the first.

† *See Boston Regulations*, ch. x. s. 9.

‡ *Manual of N. Y. Board of Education*, s. 88. *p.* 124.

§ *Boston Regulations.* ch. iv. s. 17.

‖ *N. Y. Manual*, p. 128.

Teachers.

The teachers in these schools, numerically considered, are chiefly females. Even in a boys' grammar school at New York there would probably be twice as many female teachers employed as males, the lower classes being confided to their care; in a boys' grammar school at Boston there would be a male master, sub-master and usher, while all the other teachers would be of the other sex. In grammar schools for girls all the teachers in New York would be females, in Boston the Principal would be a male. The deference which a woman everywhere commands in America appears thoroughly to penetrate the schools; and I believe these grammar-school mistresses, many of whom are very young, find no difficulty in enforcing discipline or maintaining order.

Comparison of Boston and New York grammar schools.

If I must undertake the invidious task of drawing comparisons I must say that I decidedly prefer the system pursued in the Boston grammar schools to that pursued in those of New York, simply on the ground that the programme being more limited, allows of the teaching being more thorough. In New York, too often, the text book seemed to supersede the teacher, and the memory to be more cultivated than the understanding. And, as is usual in such cases, the memory, exercised apart from the reasoning powers, was incapable of retaining for long the stores of knowledge it had acquired. Subjects supposed to be mastered in a lower class are dropped in the higher, "crowded out," as the phrase is; and, if inquired after, are found to be forgotten.* The rivalry of large and rapid promotions from a lower to a higher grade, "before all "the studies of the grade from which promotions are made are "thoroughly completed and reviewed,"† thus leaving a weak link in the chain ever after—is mischievous everywhere; but the mischief seemed to me to be more under control at Boston than elsewhere. The habit of answering questions so rapidly as almost to preclude the possibility of reflection, which is too generally encouraged in American schools as a sign of smartness, is wisely mistrusted by Boston educators.‡

Memory too exclusively cultivated.

* In a New York Grammar school, which I visited in company with the Superintendent, it was assumed that the first class were acquainted with the subject of astronomy, which they had studied in the class below a month or two previously. Upon examination, however, it was discovered that they had forgotten even the most elementary phenomena and principles. Mr. Randall informed me that he constantly found that pupils of the Free Academy, who had perhaps studied there for three years, but did not complete their course, and then came to him to be examined for a certificate as teachers, would have entirely forgotten almost all their grammar-school studies, their geography, astronomy, &c. Mr. Assistant Superintendent Kiddle notices the "servile adherence to text "books, which banishes both activity and independence of thought." (*N. Y. Report,* p. 46.) Mr. Philbrick remarks, "Another fruitful source of over-"doing arises from the erroneous notion that thoroughness in a branch "requires the text book on the subject to be committed to memory bodily; "and this error not only produces overworking, but is also the parent of the "'cramming system' of teaching, which stuffs the memory with *words, words,* "*words,* soon to be forgotten. If this is the true method, then we do not "need teachers of skill, we only need persons to hear recitations and assign "tasks." (*Boston Report for* 1864, p. 142.)

† *Mr. Randall in N. Y. 11th Report,* p. 10.

Effects of habit of rapid answering.

‡ "I think very rapid recitation in any branch should not be encouraged, and least of all," where it seemed to me to be *most* encouraged, "in the analysis

I have before me the notes which I took in a visit to one of the best New York boys' grammar schools, which will serve as a specimen and will illustrate the standard aimed at, or rather the standard attained, better than any general remarks could do. It was a school of 450 boys divided into 11 classes, under a Principal, who had been for many years at its head, five male, and six female teachers. The Principal does not teach but exercises general superintendence, and takes special oversight of the moral training and discipline. Corporal punishment is employed, when necessary, in the shape of caning on the hand. The first class consisted of 26, varying in age from 13 to 17. The subjects they were studying, the time devoted to each, and the points to which they had advanced, were—arithmetic, as far as compound proportion, four lessons a week of an hour each; algebra, as far as surds, three lessons a week of an hour; English grammar, including analysis of sentences, four exercises a week of half an hour; history of the United States (no general history), two lessons a week of half an hour; geography (not including use of the globes), two lessons a week of half an hour; drawing, one hour and a half; German, one hour and three quarters a week; reading, composition, book-keeping. This class were not taught Latin, or French, or geometry, or astronomy, and the German lessons, I was told, were worth very little, the teacher owing his appointment to political influences and taking no interest in his work.

Specimen of a New York grammar school.

Americans are hardly ever satisfied with things as they are, not from a mere idle love of change, but from a sincere belief in the possibilities of improvement; and I find that those who have the oversight of these grammar schools, both in New York and Boston, are not content with their condition or disposed to condone their deficiencies. Mr. Philbrick detects at Boston too great a difference between the progress of the upper and that of the lower grades; and though the evil has been partly remedied by stricter and more regular examinations on the part of the Principal, suggests—or rather suggested in 1864 what, unless I misunderstood things, I found adopted in 1865—a permanent modification of the organization of the schools, which would assimilate the Boston system to that which is found to work so successfully in New York.* Mr.

Changes suggested in the grammar schools.

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of difficult problems in arithmetic. Stammering, and a confused, disagreeable, and indistinct utterance are the result of excessive rapidity in recitation." (*Mr. Philbrick in Boston Report for* 1864, p. 142.)

A still more mischievous result in my opinion, and one that I could distinctly trace in many schools, is the hap-hazard style of answer, as likely to be wrong as right, which may always be expected from a mechanical process hastily performed and imperfectly understood. I was particularly struck with this in a *vivâ voce* examination in arithmetic of some female candidates for admission to the normal department of the high school, which I heard at Chicago. The questions were very simple; the answers frequently were very wild.

* "The present organization of our grammar schools is comparatively new, having been commenced only about 17 years ago. This change was by far the most radical and important which has ever been in our system of education. It was really revolutionary in its character. It has now had sufficient time to mature and to develop its capabilities and defects. As to its success, on the whole, I believe the most competent judges fully agree.. But it is not perfect.

Mr. Philbrick's suggestion of reform.

Randall, of New York, complains of the absence of "general intelligence"—a want of acquaintance with "subjects, in relation "to which every well-informed young man is presumed to be "familiar"—which is tolerated under the present system;* and,

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"Old things and new."

It has its limitations and disadvantages. The movement was made in the right direction, but, as is too often the case in attempting reforms, it went too far in some respects. Under the old system, each master had all the pupils of his school and all his assistants in the same room with himself, and the pupils had to be promoted but two or three times before reaching the class taught by himself. Twenty-five years ago the average number of pupils under the care of a master was 217, and in boys' schools the number of male teachers was double that of female. All this has been changed. In the schools for boys the number of male teachers is to that of female in the ratio of one to four. Each master has, on an average, under his care 675 pupils, or more than three times as many as a master averaged 25 years ago. These pupils are distributed with their teachers into from 10 to 18 separate rooms, where they remain most of the time out of the sight of the master, who is occupied with his own class in his own room. This plan is attended with some disadvantages which deserve consideration. . . . In the present system there is too great difference between the excellence of the upper division, or the two or three highest, and the lower grades. The evil has latterly been to some extent remedied by the systematic examination which most of the masters have given to all the divisions of their schools, but I am fully satisfied that it demands a more effectual remedy, My plan is very simple, and it involves no additional expense. In each school for boys let the sub-master take what is now the master's class, the usher take the sub-master's, and the head-assistant take the usher's; thus leaving the master free to divide his time among all the rooms, and manage the general affairs of the school. In the girls' schools the only change required would be for the masters to give up the instruction of their first division to their head-assistants. . . . Much of the master's work now in the upper class consists in correcting errors and supplying defects, which, under the proposed arrangement, he would be able to prevent in the lower divisions. Then let the masters have the same jurisdiction over the primary schools in their respective districts which they have over the grammar schools. Each master thus becomes the real Principal of all the schools in his district." (*Boston Report for* 1864, pp. 143-145.)

I believe that these recommendations have been adopted, and that the so-amended plan is now at work in Boston. I cannot see, however, how it can have been carried out without "involving any additional expense," unless at the same time that the master gave up his class to the sub-master, the whole classification of the school was altered; for otherwise the plan seems to "involve" the employment of an additional teacher.

Deficiency in knowledge of constitutional history.

* "With the exception here indicated, the course of study for boys in the grammar schools and Free Academy appears to combine most of the essential requisites of a sound and comprehensive education. If deficient in any respect, that deficiency may be found in the absence of a sufficiently thorough exposition of the peculiar frame of government under which we live, including an intimate and familiar knowledge of the Constitution of the United States, of our own State, and of the distinctive features of those of the other States in which they especially differ from our own." (*Mr. Randall in N. Y. Report for* 1864, p. 20.)

The School Commissioner of Rhode Island, whose report contains much solid sense, almost lost sometimes amid its gorgeous rhetoric, complains of the same deficiency, and reports that there is no really complete text book of constitutional law. "I should rejoice," he says, "to see a carefully prepared "classbook, adapted for use in all our schools, embracing the Constitution of "the United States, with comments illustrating its genius and spirit, and "the elements of constitutional law and of our civil system growing out of it. "It should include also a popular compend of those much-neglected, but very "important, Madison papers. Such a work made simple and arranged for "the study of the youthful mind would be an addition to our list of school

in particular, doubts whether the education provided for girls is "adapted to the requirements of their future life;" and, more particularly still, regrets the universal disappearance of "plain "and ornamental needlework" from the programme of girls' grammar schools.*

"books which I am sure would receive the hearty approbation of every "right-minded man. I do not forget that we have already several valuable "text books of this character, but I know of none *fully* adapted for use in our "common schools." (19*th R. J. Report*, pp. 31-32.)

* I will quote his very words. "In the grammar schools for girls, it may "admit of some question whether the growing demand for a practical education, "adapted specially to the requirements of future life, is as fully and satisfactorily "met as in those of the other sex. No difference whatever in the purely "mathematical course, which occupies so large a portion of the course pres- "cribed for both, is recognized. And yet it will scarcely be pretended by any one, "that the same, or anything like the same, necessity for a thorough knowledge "of higher arithmetic, algebra, and geometry, exists for the practical "requirements of after-life in the one case as in the other. Except as a mere "mental discipline, a very large portion of the scholarship thus communicated "is wholly unavailable for any useful purpose in the ordinary transactions "and duties pertaining to the sphere of womanhood; and for mental dis- "cipline, other studies of far greater practical utility, such as logic and "intellectual and moral philosophy, might easily be substituted. As *accom- "plishments*, every branch of literature and science might be pursued to the "utmost practicable extent, in institutions specially designed for that purpose; "but whether it is expedient to make them necessary portions of the ordinary "grammar-school course, to the extent at present required, may, to say the "least, be regarded as problematical. In this connexion it may be appropriate "to refer to the almost universal abandonment of plain and ornamental "needlework, which formerly constituted so prominent a feature in our female "departments, and which is still recognized as an indispensable element in "similar schools in other cities. In conjunction with modern improvements "in this most appropriate and graceful department of female industry and "skill, it can scarcely admit of a question that the reintroduction of this "element would materially add to the practical utility of this class of schools." (*N. Y. Report for* 1864. pp. 20–21.)

Mr. Randall on the want of practical utility in the education of girls.

In Newhaven, I was told, there are two public schools in which needlework is taught to the girls, between 11 and 12 o'clock daily, by some benevolent lady visitors, but a difficulty was felt about introducing it as a general feature of the system. It would lower the character of the school in the eyes of parents. They would come to regard it as a pauper school. Miss Mary Hillhouse, of Newhaven, a lady "of more than fourscore years," representing old ideas as well as an old historic family, and universally respected for her high character and strong common sense, regards this exclusion of industrial work, and the neglect of moral and religious training, as the two capital defects of the American system.

Needlework in Newhaven,

At Boston, the home of practical ideas in this matter of education, by the regulations of the School Committee, "plain sewing may be introduced into "any primary school at the discretion of the sub-committee," and 12 sewing teachers are employed in as many grammar schools at salaries varying from $225 to $450 per annum, who spend respectively 10, 12, 16, 20, and in one case 23 hours a week in the schools, giving instruction in that subject. In the school to which the largest amount of time is devoted, and which is attended chiefly by scholars of foreign parentage, the results are described as excellent. "The instruction," say the committee, "in sewing, given in the Bowditch "school, is probably of as great practical value to the pupils as anything else "taught there. Perhaps nine-tenths of the pupils would receive it in no "other way, and it becomes absolutely indispensable that it be given to every "individual child, while in some schools a little supervision by the sewing "mistress is all that is required. . . It has been found that, notwithstand-

in Boston.

High Schools.

The culminating grade of the American common-school system is the high school, the object of which, as contemplated by the Massachusetts legislators of 1647, was "to instruct youth so far "as they may be fitted for the university," and which, though that is no longer its professed object, still to some extent discharges that function at the present day. The Free Academy of New York, which *is* the high school in the system of that city, and the high school of Philadelphia, are the only ones, so far as I am aware, which seem to exclude the idea of their students proceeding to a university, by themselves granting the degrees of Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Sciences, and Master of Arts; but all high schools confer upon those who complete their prescribed course the title of "graduates," and most bestow on them a diploma.

"ing our sewing teacher is employed for the largest period allowed by the "regulations, it has been impossible for her to give the instruction needed." (*Boston Report*, 1864, pp. 21–22.)

Unpractical character of much of the education.

At the risk of being wearisome, I must make one more extract, bearing upon this whole subject, and then pass on. "The average time," says the Superintendent of schools of New Bedford, Mass., "spent in completing "the course of study in the grammar schools is a little more than three years, "a very considerable portion of which is spent in memorizing the endless "details of geography, whose prominent facts are all that have any real value; "the unimportant events of history, including the time when this or that "insignificant person was born and died; the time when a multitude of battles "was fought, the number of killed and wounded, and much other equally "frivolous matter; and the intricacies of grammatical analysis—all which, "learned with so much difficulty, and of really no value when learned, very "soon passes from the memory after entering upon active life. Are we "realizing the best and most desirable results of true education, when we send "forth from our schools so large a proportion of those so *educated* in them— "if such a term can be allowed—that they can solve simple arithmetical pro- "blems, so as to reach the result indicated in the printed answer of their book, "but imperfectly, if at all, comprehending the principles which underlie the "solution, and without which the process is simply mechanical; capable of "repeating in most ungrammatical sentences such principles of grammar as "their memories can retain; often with a chirography such as the great "Roman historian said 'should be reckoned among the unpardonable sins;' "and with such habits of reading, so devoid of correct emphasis and appro- "priate expression, as to make the inquiry of old a very pertinent one, "'Understandest thou what thou readest'? Might not a portion of the "valuable time now almost wasted in ways indicated above be far more "profitably employed if devoted to some subjects of really practical value? "Is not a knowledge of book-keeping, in its simplest forms, sufficient how- "ever to enable these future mechanics and operatives, it may be, to keep their "own accounts and make out their bills for services rendered, without feeling "ashamed of them, or depending upon others for this, of more importance to "them than at least one-half of what is so painfully committed to memory in "some bulky geography or history? Is not the ability to express one's thoughts "correctly in good plain English, either in epistolary correspondence or in "any form of writing, which might be acquired by devoting a portion of the "time to compositions or letter writing, of more value than much of the "unintelligible jargon of analysis so glibly repeated after months of wearisome "study? Does not many a young man wish that he had the confidence to "stand up before his fellow-men in public assemblies when occasions demand "it, which he might have acquired in his school-days, if the practice of decla- "mation had been allowed to occupy a small portion of the time which an "occasional omission of some less important exercises might have secured?" (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 193–4) A somewhat overcoloured description, perhaps, but yet containing some important matter for reflection.

The course of study pursued in these schools is not dictated by the requirements of any particular university in anything like the same sense in which, for instance, at New York, the course of so many boys' grammar schools is modified and influenced by the requirements of the Free Academy. In Newhaven I did not discover that the requirements of Yale College, though they were paramount in their influence upon the studies pursued at Hopkins' Endowed Grammar School, bore with any perceptible effect upon the studies pursued in the high school. At Cambridge, Mass., whose institutions might, from their proximity, be supposed to be affected by the influences radiating from Harvard University, and which, perhaps, once *were* affected, the School Committee plead for the plan of study laid down for the high-school course, that, whatever may be thought of its judiciousness, it can at least "no "longer be said that it is made subordinate to the college course." It is meant to "embrace no more than it is desirable for all "children to study whose worldly circumstances permit them to "remain at school the necessary time."* The high school *does*—or at least, when the classical course is taken, it does—fit for admission to the University;† but it is also meant to be complete in itself. Its object is "to give a good elementary education in "the usual English studies," as well as "to prepare young men "far college by affording them the best and most thorough "training in the elements of the Latin and Greek languages."‡

The high-school course not directly relevant to the university.

There is somewhat of a dislocation in the sequence which normally prevails between the different grades of the American school system, in the relations between a grammar school and a classical high school. It is decidedly recommended at Boston, on grounds already quoted, that a boy should be sent to the Latin school at an early age, and not be kept at the Grammar School to complete the course there before being put to the study of Latin.§ In Newhaven, again, the high school has a preparatory department of its own, in which I found about 40 children, whose parents design them for occupations in which some knowledge of Latin is necessary, but have no intention of sending them to college, and who, but for this circumstance, would still be on the register of a grammar school. Indeed, even so, the age at which the study of Latin is ordinarily commenced is so late, and the age at which the study of Greek is commenced so much later, and the languages, both modern and ancient are, unfortunately, so liable to get "crowded out" by other subjects, it is thought, of more pressing necessity, that, in spite of a wide and growing sense of their value, the classical authors receive no fair share of attention, nor are

Dislocation between the grammar school and the classical high school.

Latin and Greek commenced late.

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* *Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 52.

† In half a century, the Boston Latin High School has fitted 675 students for the university, or an average of nearly 14 a year. The present Master, who has been at the head of the institution for 13 years, has in that time fitted 252, or nearly 20 a year, the admissions meanwhile being at the rate of about 80 a year, and the whole number of students in August 1864 being 220.

‡ *Report of Committee of Boston Latin High School*, 1864, p. 62.

§ *Boston Report for* 1864, p. 145.

cultivated with any remunerative amount of success, under the present American system. We in England, at any rate, whatever else it may be profitable to us to learn from American schools, have nothing to learn from the way in which they teach Latin and Greek. Still it may be worth while to know what that way actually is, and what are the opinions on the subject that generally prevail.

Three forms of high-school organization.

"In the organization of high schools," says Mr. Wells, in his extremely useful little treatise on graded schools, "three "different forms have been adopted by different cities and towns:

"A. That which embraces a general course and a classical "course in the same school, the parents or guardians of the pupils "being allowed to elect between the two courses.

"B. A division into two distinct schools, an English high "school and a classical school, each independent of the other.

"C. A union of the two courses in one classical and English "school, in which all the pupils are required to study both the "English branches and the classics.

"The first of these forms is illustrated by the high schools at "Chicago and St. Louis, and the Free Academy at New York; "the second form is illustrated by the high schools of Boston; "the third form is illustrated by the high schools of Cincinnati,"* and Philadelphia.

Their course of study

The course of study in a high school generally occupies four years, each divided into two terms; but in the New York Free Academy the full course is extended through five years, and in the Boston Latin High School the ordinary period is six years, while in the Girls' High School, in the same city, it is reduced to three.†

rarely completed.

A very small proportion, however, of those who commence the course complete it. They fall out at various stages; some, because an opportunity occurs for getting out in life; others,

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Full and partial courses.

* *Wells on Graded Schools*, p. 120. Some high schools, *ex. gr.* the Free Academy at New York, allow of what is called a "partial course," which embraces any studies less than either of the full courses, and has for its object the fitting young men for certain special future careers. The "partial course" may either extend over the whole period of time occupied by the "full course," or be limited to a certain portion of it: this would be determined by the special circumstances of the student.

The Philadelphia authorities approve neither of "elective studies," nor of "partial courses," having an eye to the proper functions, as they conceive them, of a high school. "The high school," they say, "is a public institution "subject to the scrutiny and criticism of every citizen; and those having its "interests in charge must adopt such a course of study as will meet the wants "of every relation in life—such as will develop the man in all his mental "powers. If in their deliberate opinion there is any branch of study which "may be deemed superfluous, whose function is performed by others, let it be "abandoned rather than resort to elective studies or partial courses, which "enlarge to an unhealthy measure one faculty, whilst dwarfing others given "by Providence for cultivation and use." (*Controllers' Report for* 1864, p. 230.)

Boston four years' course.

† In the English High School for boys at Boston, the course is laid down for three years; but "those who wish to pursue further some of the higher depart-"ments of mathematics and other branches have the privilege of remaining "another year at the school." It is specially ordered that "no one shall re-"main a member of the school longer than four years." (*Regulations*, ch xi. s. 1, 5.)

because they fail at one or other of the periodic examinations for advancement. This fact is strikingly illustrated by the statistics of the Philadelphia Central High School, which justly enjoys the reputation of being inferior to none in the country. It appears that, from the first organization of the school in October 1838 to the year 1864, the whole number of those who have left is 5,272. Of these, 2,660 left before the expiration of two years of their course; 1,751 attended the school for a period of more than two years but less than four; 861 completed the full course.*

Case of the Boston English High School.

In Mr. Philbrick's perspicuous Report of the English High School at Boston, a school which I should have liked, if possible, to put under a glass case and bring to England for exhibition as a type of a thoroughly useful middle-class school, there is an estimate that the grammar schools of the city ought to send to this High School each year not less than 150 pupils; and some calculations are made upon the hypothesis that of this number 50 would probably leave at the end of the first year, 50 at the end of the second year, and 50 would remain to complete the course.†

Example from Philadelphia.

* *Report of Philadelphia Controllers for* 1864, p. 279. The following table illustrates the same fact as exhibited in a single term. It should be remarked that the full course consists of eight terms, and the classes are indicated by the letters of the alphabet, from A, the senior, to H.

Classes.	A.	B.	C.	D.	E.	F.	G.	H.	Total.
Whole number at beginning of 52nd term, Feb. 15, 1864 - - - -	19	24	23	31	53	83	136	138	507
Left during the term or at its close - - -	19	0	1	7	24	21	46	9	127

The 19 in class A constitute the graduating class, who were admitted to the degree of B.A. So that a class which enters 120 or 130 strong, dwindles in the course of four years to about 20, and the proportion of those who complete their course to those who withdraw is about one to six. It will be noticed that the withdrawals are most numerous in the early stages of the course, especially in the second term. The phenomenon may be accounted for by the following rule of the committee of management: "Resolved, that any pupil of division H, failing to attain, during the first month of the next term, an "average of 50 marks, shall be dropped from the list of students, and returned "to the school from which he was sent." At the close of the second year of the course, those who have attained the special and general averages required by the rules are entitled to a certificate, testifying to their having so far satisfactorily pursued the studies of the school. This will account for the number of withdrawals in division E. All the students beyond that stage probably intend, unless prevented by some unforeseen accident, to remain at the school and graduate.

Figures of the English High School, Boston.

† *Boston Report for* 1864, p. 183. The actual figures of 1864 were: number admitted clear, 110; admitted on trial, 28. Total of admissions, 138. Whole number belonging, 179; graduated, 17. It is noticed that "the graduating "class was below the average of the last 10 years. The special demand for "young men, growing out of the present condition of the country, induced many "to leave at the close of the second year of their course—some, to take clerk-"ships in stores, and several to enter the army." (*Ibid.* p. 72.)

Of course it is obvious that the mass of students can derive but little benefit from the partial attendance upon a course of study the idea of which is only complete when it is pursued to the end.* Indeed, it is asserted that many students seek admission to the high schools just for the name of the thing, "even though they "have no intention of remaining, and have made up their minds "to engage in some trade or business within a few months of "their admission."† It does not admit of a doubt that these young people would have consulted their own interests better had they remained those "few months" longer in the grammar school.

Examination for admission.

Universally, pupils are only admitted to the high school after a thorough and searching examination,—"within limits," however, and "in the subjects of their text books,"—held twice a year, conducted by the Principal and teachers of the high school, under the supervision of the Committee, with a view to perfect impartiality, the reputation of the grammar schools being supposed to depend in public estimation upon the number of candidates whom they succeed in passing. Candidates for admission are designated by numbers merely, and neither their names nor the schools from which they come are made known to the examiners. The subjects of examination for admission do not vary widely in the different high schools, and those adopted at Boston may be accepted as a sample. For admission to the English High School—the average age of those admitted in 1864 being 15·38 years—a satisfactory examination is required to be passed in spelling, reading, writing, English grammar, arithmetic, modern geography, and the history of the United States.‡ For admission to the Latin High School—the minimum age of admission being 10, the average age of those admitted in 1864 being 12·80 years—a candidate must be able "to read English correctly and fluently, to spell all words of com-"mon occurrence, to write a running hand, understand mental "arithmetic and the simple rules of written arithmetic, and be "able to answer the most important questions in geography, and "have a sufficient knowledge of English grammar to parse "common sentences in prose."§

Connexion between high and grammar schools more or less strict.

In New York there is an organic connexion between the grammar schools and the Free Academy, nor is any candidate admissible for examination unless he has attended the common schools of the city for 12 months; and in case of the number qualified for admission exceeding the capacity of the institution to receive them, preference is given to those who have attended the

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Small benefit in incomplete courses.

* "To derive much benefit from the high-school course the pupils should "remain three years. No plan can be contrived by which those who want only "one or two years' higher education can study those branches which would be "most useful to them, unless we sacrifice those who seek a more thorough "training." (*Cambridge School Committee in Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 52.)

† *Charleston School Committee, ibid.* p. 54.

‡ The New York Free Academy requires, in addition, a knowledge of elementary book-keeping, and of algebra as far as quadratic equations, inclusive.

§ *Boston Regulations*, ch. xiii. s. 5.

common schools the longer time.* In Boston, though the privileges of the high schools, as places of free education, are limited to residents in the city, the connexion with the grammar schools is looser, and though most of the students are drawn from them, not a few are derived from other sources.† The Free Academy at New York and the Central High School at Philadelphia appear to aspire to a higher rank and to play a more distinguished part in the work of education than schools similarly related to the general system in other cities. They grant degrees; their teachers are dignified with the title of "Professor;" the Free Academy posesses a "Faculty." It is not contemplated, I imagine, that students who graduate there should either need or seek further development, other than special, elsewhere. The function of the high schools at Boston—I speak now of those for boys only—is strictly preparatory; they are schools only, not special schools even, but schools of secondary instruction,‡ in one of which—the Latin High School—boys are fitted for college; in the other, the English School, a collegiate course not being in view, pupils are furnished with the means "of completing a good English educa-

Function of Boston high schools.

* *New York Manual*, s. 137, 138, p. 147.

† In 1864, the number of pupils admitted to the Latin High School was 91, "of whom 57, with an average of 12$\frac{17}{24}$ years, were received from the public "schools of the city, and 34, whose ages averaged 13$\frac{1}{2}$ years, were from other "sources." (*Boston Report*, 1864, p. 68.) In the girls' high school, if there happen to be any vacant places, non-resident students are admitted on payment of tuition fees, which amount to about $45,—the sum varies a little,—a year. In 1864, there were 22 such students out of a whole number registered of 352. (*Ibid.* p. 83.) The rule of admission at Philadelphia is as peremptory as at New York. "No pupil shall be a candidate for admission to the high schools "who shall not have been enrolled and in actual attendance at one of the public "schools at least for one year previous to application; and no pupil is to be "received into any of the schools of the district who is not *bonâ fide* domiciled "therein." (*Controllers' 46th Report*, p. 323.)

Practice at Boston.

Rule at Philadelphia.

‡ "Secondary instruction occupies the intermediate place between elementary and superior instruction, following those branches which are instrumental and preparatory to the pursuit of knowledge, and preceding the special studies which bear more or less upon the occupation of the individual in future life. This department is of two kinds, corresponding with the two divisions of superior education, first, as preparatory to the universities or special schools in which students are educated for the professions usually designated as learned; and, second, as preparatory to the polytechnic institutions or special schools in which students are trained for the higher practical occupations which are rising rapidly into, or have taken their place in, the rank of the learned professions. Secondary education of the first kind is commenced in our Latin school, and completed in the college This is the course for the student who is destined to the profession of law, medicine, or divinity, or who aspires to the highest grade of intellectual culture as a scholar and man of letters. The other branch of secondary education is provided for in our English High School. The course here is adapted to the wants of students who are destined to commercial occupations, or those industrial professions which require a systematic training in applied science, including a thorough knowledge of scientific laws and principles, and a large general cultivation united with habits of close observation and exact reasoning. While it affords a good practical education of itself, it furnishes at the same time the necessary preparation for the highest special instruction which is requisite for the analytical and practical chemist, the builder and architect, the mining, civil, and mechanical engineer, the geologist, the astronomer, the naturalist, and the man of scientific culture." (*Boston Report for* 1864, p. 176.)

Schools of secondary instruction.

" tion, and fitting themselves for all the departments of commer-
" cial life."

The Institute of Technology at Boston.

Such, at least, is the present aim of the English school, in default of any higher institution of special instruction to which it would naturally lead; but it is hoped that the sphere of its usefulness will be greatly enlarged, though its nominal functions will be contracted, by the establishment in Boston of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, in which provision has been made for a special department to be called the " School of Industrial Science and Art," which will stand to the English High School in a similar relation to that in which the university stands to the Latin school. The Latin school is related to the department of philosophy and belles lettres; the English school is a handmaid in the department of practical science and art. The one is to furnish the commonwealth with its statesmen, physicians, lawyers, divines, *littérateurs;* the other is to supply it with capable men in the various fields of manufacturing, agricultural, and commercial industry.

Qualifications of teachers, &c.

The teachers in the two Boston schools of which we are speaking are required to have been " educated at some respectable college " of good standing "—an indefinite phrase, but of which I suppose there exists a definite practical interpretation—and, in the case of those employed in the English school, they must be competent to instruct in the French language. I do not observe any similar requirement in the regulations laid down for the government of the New York Free Academy, at least as regards " professors;" but it is ordered that " when vacancies occur in the corps of tutors, " preference shall be given to the highest two on the merit roll of " the academy, provided they have sufficient qualifications for such " appointment."* The universally recognized ratio of teachers to students in the high schools appears to be as one to 35. The normal school-day is five or six hours, either continuous or divided;† of which, perhaps, half the time is spent in recitation and half in study.‡ The vacations would be six or seven weeks in summer, from the middle of July to the first week in September, a week at Christmas, and in New York a week also in the spring.

New York merit roll.

* *New York Manual*, s. 162. The merit roll is a document which is made up immediately after each semi-annual examination, containing a list of each class, in which each student is ranked as he approaches nearest to the maximum number of marks in his department, including both his examinations and conduct. (*Ibid.* s. 157.)

Hours of daily session.

† At the Free Academy the school day as defined in the regulations is from 9 to 3, with half an hour's recess at 12; but at the school I understood the day's work terminated at 2—which is the Boston hour—and sometimes at 1. At Providence the session is from 9 to 2 in winter, from 8 to 1 in summer. At Newhaven and Hartford two sessions are preferred, from 9 to 12, and again from 2 to 4, or 4.30.

Variation at Philadelphia.

‡ This is the general rule. But at Philadelphia there is no in-school studying at all. The whole school day is occupied with recitations or lectures.

Three recitations a day, in other places, would be the usual thing; though at the girls' high school in Boston I found that some of the students, who took all the subjects, had five recitations—certainly a case of that " high pressure " which is said to be doing so much mischief.

Saturday in each school week is generally a whole holiday, and certain days of national significance—July 4th, Washington's birthday, Thanksgiving Day,—and a few more, are similarly observed. In Boston holidays seem to be dealt out in more liberal measure than elsewhere,* and the school day is an hour shorter than in New York.

It may be well to give a brief abstract of the chief rules laid down by the New York Board of Education for the internal management of the Free Academy, which, whatever its actual educational results, at least is liberally planned and thoroughly organized. Rules of the New York Free Academy,

A programme of study is laid down, which, however, may be modified by the Executive Committee (consisting of seven members of the Board of Education), on the recommendation of the Faculty.† The option of each student as to the course of study he is to pursue is to be made in writing by his parent or guardian, submitted to and approved by the faculty, and registered and filed by the registrar. At the beginning of each term the students in each full course of the first three years are divided, as nearly as may be, into sections of 35, and in the other classes of 40, students, for the purpose of recitation; but no class is to be organized with less than 20 students. Each student is to have three recitations or lectures a day, besides drawing, and also an exercise in declamation and composition about once a month. The recitations and lectures are to be so arranged in alternation with the hours of study, that the professors, while not occupied themselves in instruction, may visit the recitation rooms of the tutors in their respective departments, (which it is their duty to do), to observe the manner in which instruction is given, and to become acquainted with the students, their progress, and attainments. The professor of moral, intellectual, and political philosophy (who is also the Principal), is to give at least one lecture or hear one recitation each day; the professor of chemistry, three; and all the other members of the Faculty whose whole time is devoted to the as regards study,

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* The holidays of the high schools in Boston are: the long vacation from third week in July to second week in September; every Wednesday and Saturday afternoon; Christmas day, New Year's day, Feb. 22nd, Good Friday, May day, Fast day, Artillery election, and the 4th July; Thanksgiving week, the week immediately preceding the first Monday in March; one week, commencing on the Monday preceding the last Wednesday in May, and the two days of public exhibition at Harvard University. In addition, the President of the Board of Education has power to suspend the schools *on such public occasions* as he may think proper, not exceeding three days in any one municipal year. (See *Boston Rules*, ch. viii. s. 36.) Boston holidays.

† The Faculty is composed of the Principal and all the professors (acting as well as adjunct), employed in the academy. The professorial body consists of a professor of moral, intellectual, and political philosophy (who is also Principal); of English language and literature; of French language and literature; of German ditto; of Spanish ditto; of the Latin and Greek languages and literature; of history and belles lettres; of pure mathematics; of mixed mathematics; of chemistry and physics; of natural history and physiology; of drawing; an adjunct professor in the department of philosophies; another in the department of mathematics. As many "tutors" are employed as the number of students may from time to time require. At present there are 12 at salaries varying from $1,250 to $1,750 a year. Faculty of Free Academy

institution, and the tutors, four. The professor of drawing is to teach descriptive geometry in the department of pure mathematics, when not engaged with his classes in drawing; and generally the studies of cognate departments are to be so distributed among the professors and tutors as to give each full employment. Seventeen rooms are set apart as recitation rooms, and six rooms are occupied for study.* While occupied in study the pupils are under the superintendence of an instructor, that duty devolving in rotation upon all the instructors except the Principal. The several professors and tutors are responsible for the maintenance of order in their several sections, and keep a full daily record of the merit and demerit of each student under his care, an abstract of which is entered in the books of the Academy. Each instructor must also keep a register of conduct, in which all cases of violation of good order by a student are entered, together with the amount of censure in demerit marks which he thinks the offence deserves. This register is to be left with the Principal at the close of each day for his approval, and returned to the teacher the following morning. No student is to be "demerited" without notice to him of the fact and the cause.

as regards discipline.

The punishments inflicted at the Academy have been already named.† All punishments, when inflicted, are to be recorded in the "Book of Discipline." As an appeal to emulation, a merit roll is made up after each half-yearly examination, on which the students are severally classed as "Highest" "High" "Good" "Low." Conduct, as well as intellectual proficiency, is considered in determining the rank. A copy of this roll, when printed, is sent by the Principal to the parent or guardian of every student, whom he is also to notify of any case of habitual or gross delinquency. If a student has made so little progress in any of his studies or has been so disorderly in his conduct as not to gain an average rate of at least half the maximum on the last merit roll, he is to be rated as "deficient," and so recorded; and if he is rated "deficient" on two successive merit rolls he shall be dismissed from the Academy.‡

"Partial course" students.

* Students who take the "partial course" are not supplied with rooms for study at the academy, but are expected to prepare their work at home, and only attend the academy for lectures and recitations.

† *See above*, p. 82, note.

Discipline in Philadelphia.

‡ *See Manual of N. Y. Board of Education*, ss. 144–160. The Principal informed me that there was very little trouble about discipline. He is very strict in cases of truancy. In the Philadelphia High School certificates of distinction are issued each term to every boy who has attained an average of 95 marks in his division. A boy who attains a term average of not less than 85 is called "meritorious;" and a list both of the "distinguished" and the "meritorious" is published in the Controllers' Annual Report. If a student fails of promotion to a higher division at the half-yearly examination, he has to remain where he is, and to repeat the studies of the previous term; if he fails a second time, he is dropped from the list of students. The Principal of the Philadelphia School takes no part in the instruction, superintends merely, unless now and then he takes the place and the recitations of an absent professor. In the two Boston high schools, the "Master" appeared to be as much engaged in teaching as any of his assistants.

As already hinted, the Free Academy at New York, in spite of its somewhat minutiose discipline, and the Central High School at Philadelphia, granting their degrees in arts and sciences, and with their array of professors and tutors, aspire rather to be ranked as colleges, and to put a finishing touch to education, than are content to occupy the humbler position, which is all that the Massachusetts system assigns to a high school, of "fitting youth for the university."* The great deficiency in the programme of these two institutions is the inadequate attention that is paid to the two great classical languages, with their contained literature, of Greece and Rome.† At the Philadelphia High School, Greek is not taught

Aims of the high schools of New York and Philadelphia.

Their chief deficiency.

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* The Superintendent of Schools at Worcester, Mass., where the system is said to work with uncommon vigour, says, "It is folly for a high school to "attempt too many things, and aspire to rival the college. Better far accom- "plish a little thoroughly, than to pass superficially over a more showy or high- "sounding list of studies. Better to master whatever is touched than to labour "fruitlessly over books beyond present comprehension, and to advance by "regular steps than to leap at heights which cannot suddenly be scaled." (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 121.)

Proper aim of high schools.

† It is not a little remarkable to how small an extent conversation, or even literature, in America is flavoured with classical thought, or coloured by classical allusions. Beyond a charming little society of about a dozen gentlemen, gathered from the most miscellaneous walks in life, who meet weekly in New York to read a play of Aristophanes, or a dialogue of Plato, one of whose "noctes cænæque" I was permitted to join, I do not remember an instance in which even a remote allusion led me to suppose that he with whom I was conversing, or to whom I was listening, was familiar with the higher literature of Greece or Rome. Of course many of the cultivated scholars whom I met *were* thoroughly familiar with it; but the noticeable thing was how little, in the ordinary intercourse of social life, they suffered their intimacy to transpire. And, certainly, the fact seems to illustrate the small extent to which, as yet, classical culture has really penetrated the mass even of the best-educated people. Yet De Tocqueville has acutely pointed out its special value in a democratic state of society. "Il est évident," says he, "que, dans les "sociétés démocratiques, l'intérêt des individus, aussi bien que la sûreté de "l'État, exigent que l'éducation du plus grand nombre soit scientifique, com- "merciale, et industrielle, plutôt que littéraire. Le Grec et le Latin ne doivent "pas être enseignés dans toutes les écoles; mais il importe que ceux que leur "naturel ou leur fortune destinent à cultiver les lettres, ou prédisposent à les "goûter trouvent des écoles où l'on puisse se rendre parfaitement maître de la "littérature antique, et se pénétrer entièrement de son esprit. Quelques univer- "sités excellentes vaudraient mieux, pour atteindre ce resultat, qu'une multitude "de mauvais colléges, où des études superflues qui se font mal, empêchent de "bien faire des études nécessaires. Tous ceux qui ont l'ambition d'exceller dans "les lettres, chez les nations démocratiques, doivent souvent se nourrir des œuvres "de l'antiquité. C'est une hygiène salutaire. Ce n'est pas que je considère les "productions littéraires des anciens comme irréprochables. Je pense seule- "ment qu'elles ont des qualités spéciales qui peuvent merveilleusement servir "à contrebalancer nos défauts particuliers. Elles nous soutiennent par le "bord où nous penchons. Il suffit, en effet, de jeter les yeux sur les écrits "que nous a laissés l'antiquité, pour découvrir que si les écrivains y ont "quelquefois manqué de variété et de fecondité dans les sujets, de hardiesse, "de mouvement, et de généralisation dans la pensée, ils ont toujours fait voir "un art et un soin admirables dans les détails; rien dans leurs œuvres ne "semble fait ni à la hâte ni au hasard: tout y est écrit pour les connaisseurs, "et la recherche de la beauté idéale s'y montre sans cesse. Il n'y a pas de "littérature qui mette plus en relief que celle des anciens les qualités qui "manquent naturellement aux écrivains des démocraties. Il n'existe donc "point de littérature qu'il convienne mieux d'étudier dans les siècles démo-

General want of classical culture in America.

De Tocqueville on value of classical culture to a democracy.

No Greek taught at High School, Philadelphia.

at all, and Latin chiefly as an adjunct to English, and then only as far as a little Horace and Virgil. The whole strength of the teaching is thrown upon mathematics and the sciences, in which departments of knowledge the students are said to advance as far as is done in any educational institution in the country. In the

Limited amount of classical teaching at Free Academy.

Free Academy Latin is commenced in the first year, when the student must be at least 14, and may be 15 or 16, and is studied five times every week. In the second year Greek is commenced, the pupil's age now ranging from 15 to 17, and is studied twice a week the first term, three times a week the second term; Latin, on the other hand, being read three times a week the first term and twice a week the second. In the third year, throughout, Latin is taken twice a week, and Greek three times; in the fourth year Latin is read twice a week, and Greek three times, during the first term; in the second term to each language only one recitation a week is allowed. In the fifth or last year one language has to give way to the other, and for no more than one recitation in the week of "Latin *or* Greek" can time be found. As a natural consequence the attainments of the students, as compared with what we are accustomed to expect in England, are very insignificant. I heard the "Sophomore" class,—students of the third year, of the average age of 17,—construe with some difficulty about 24 lines of Xenophon's Anabasis, and answer, not always very correctly, a few questions of the most elementray kind in the accidence and syntax. Next year they would be advanced to Thucydides and Sophocles; but I imagine that one book of the historian and one play of the dramatist will be the extent of their reading; and there, with the addition perhaps of a couple of books of Homer, their acquaintance with Greek literature will end. They will hardly have cultivated a more extensive field in Latin; a little Virgil, a little Cicero, a little Livy and Sallust, and a little Horace—the last author being almost unversally chosen to close the Latin course—will be all that, in the ordinary course of things, they will

At the Boston Latin School.

read there. In the Boston Latin High School the course, I think, is more thorough, but does not range even so high. The programme of the school does not profess to teach more than "the "*rudiments* of the Latin and Greek languages." Latin is commenced at once; but boys do not enter upon Greek till they have reached the fourth class, by which time they would be on the average 14 or 15 years of age, and the highest points attained in that language are Xenophon's Anabasis and three books of Homer. In Latin Cæsar, Ovid, Virgil, and Cicero are read; but it cannot be said that any *great* proficiency in the language is exhibited, while the exercises in composition are confined to Kerchever Arnold's most unattractive books. That such "a run through the grammars," with "a hasty nibble at the edges of Virgil, Cicero, and Xenophon"

"cratiques. Cette étude est, de toutes, la plus propre à combattre les défauts "littéraires inhérents à ces siècles; quant à leurs qualités naturelles, elles "naitront bien toutes seules, sans qu'il soit nécessaire d'apprendre à les "acquérir" (*Démocratie en Amérique*, vol. ii. pp. 68–69).

(as an American professor himself describes the process),* should produce any satisfactory results, could not be expected; and to me,

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* *Professor North, in Report of N. Y. Regents for* 1864, *Appendix*, p. 45. American description of a "classical curriculum." "Just look," he says, "at the hurried, superficial, unwholesome race-course of study that is sometimes named—rightly enough named, all things considered—a classical *curriculum*. First, a feverish run through the Latin and Greek grammars, with a dyspeptic huddling into the memory of principles and paradigms; next, a guerilla raid among the borders of the authors first read, under a teacher who is more interested in other and larger classes—a teacher, who thinks he has no time to hear Greek and Latin pronounced; who calls it useless pedantry to write Greek and Latin; who always puts off the analysing of words and sentences for a more convenient season; who has no knowledge of prosody, and therefore no faith in it; who thinks it immoral to understand heathen mythology, but who rejoices in a generous facility at writing certificates of fitness for the freshman class."

The writer of the above paragraph is advocating, with very sensible arguments, the more extensive use of the black board in teaching Greek. It certainly is an admirable instrument in any study, and is used with great effect in all the best American schools. In the Professor's own case, however, it does not seem to have produced any remarkable results. He shall tell his own tale. "In my own classes no exercise has called out more enthusiasm than that of hellenizing old proverbs and familiar bits of verse. Two years ago I called for Greek translations of a couple of stanzas from George Herbert. I copy the following versions without changing an accent or a letter:—

I.

Sweet day! so cool, so calm, so bright,
The bridal of the earth and sky;
The dews shall weep thy fall to-night,
For thou must die.

II.

Only a sweet and virtuous soul,
Like seasoned timber, never gives;
But tho' the whole earth turn to coal,
Then chiefly lives.

Γλυκ' ἦμαρ ὡς ψυχρὸν δὲ λαμπρὸν χ' ἥσυχον
τῆς γῆς τὸ νυμφεύειν τε καὶ τοῦ αἰθέρος,
σὸν πτῶμα δ' ἔρσαι τῇδε νυκτὶ δακρυσους'
ἢ γὰρ πέπρωται καταθάνεσθαί σοι τέλος.

Ψυχὴ μόνη χρηστὴ τὸ ἦθος κἀγαθὴ,
ὅμοια τῇ ἀΐῃ ὕλῃ, εἴκει ποτ' ουκ',
ἀλλ' ἢ πάσης τῆς γῆς ἔτ' ἠνθρακωμένης,
ἔπειτα μὴν ἥδε ζάει μακαρτάτος.

Another version was:—

Ψυχὴ μόνη ἡδῦια τὶς τε καὶ καλὴ,
ὕλης δικὴν ἄυης μαλ' ἔικει μήποτε,
ἔαν τύχῃ ἡ πᾶσα γῆ νῦν ἀνθρακοῖ
ἔπειτα μὴν ζᾶ ἥδε καὶ μακάρτατη." (*Ibid.* p. 50.)

That such iambics should be quoted as specimens is a sufficient proof that nothing very high in this line is either attempted or attained.

I cannot help quoting also the Professor's concluding remarks: "One whose Greek studies are conducted in the way now proposed may pass over less of surface than under a different regime, but his knowledge of the language will be held by a stronger lien. The life of the old Greek authors will become a part of his life; it will sing to him in familiar English rhythms borrowed from the Greek drama; it will salute him from many household words and maxims, drawing their vitality from old Greek roots and myths.

retaining as I do the old-fashioned notions about the best instruments of mental development, that is, of education, it was a source of regret to find that there was such very meagre provision under the American system of instruction for making its pupils acquainted with the grand literatures of Greece and Rome.*

" All the activities of his mind will be impressed with a peculiar signet that " will stand as his patent of intellectual nobility. This he will carry to his " grave as the Attic freeman carried his γνωρίσματα; and throughout life's rough " encounters and confusions this will make good his title to the rank and " privileges of a scholar. The sharp contests of the bar and the bema, the " calmer teachings of the pulpit, the lecture room, and the press, even the " unstudied communings of the fireside and the wayside, will all be redolent " of a classic perfume, which . . . will never cease confessing a genial " nurture and discipline, never neutralized by years or cares, but ever present " in their influence and ever recognized as a power for good and a badge of " honour" (*Ibid.* p. 51). This is what *is to be* when the use of the black-board has wrought a change. It does not contradict what I have stated in a previous note to be, as far as my own observation went, the *existing* phenomena.

* The regret is shared by many Americans. I quote from one :—

Wish for more classical culture and a more liberal education.

" There have sprung up of late in almost all our higher seminaries what are called 'partial courses.' They are favoured as most popular, most practical, and most immediately connected with the business of after life. They generally embrace, in largest proportion, the physical sciences, to the neglect of other departments belonging to the essential idea of liberal education. Now, it may be a serious question whether they secure, to any desirable extent, even the poor and partial end at which they aim, and for which so much that is fundamental has to be sacrificed. Permit the speaker to give his own thirty years' experince as a teacher here. It is decidedly to the effect that college students, on a partial course of this kind, are not, in general, so well acquainted even with their own chosen branches as those who have connected with them other studies deemed fundamental in a general course. There has been obtained a more solid acquaintance even with natural science and the mixed mathematics, and especially a better appreciation of those aspects that connect them with the whole field of knowledge, by young men who have been steadily pursuing, at the same time, the old course of classical, philosophical, and pure mathematical study. Here also may there be presented to our practical men the same test as before, and on their own vaunted ground of practical utility. Let the experiment be fairly tried with a dozen young men drilled for four years, mainly in the philosophical, the logical, the moral, the metaphysical, the historical, and mathematical sciences, together with what is generally known as the belles lettres. Let the same number, during the same period, be occupied with those physical branches that have usurped to themselves, almost exclusively, the names of the scientific and the practical. With the utmost confidence we would abide the resulting test that would settle the question, which of the two courses proposed would turn out the most truly practical men, most efficient, best qualified to act their parts among men in all the moral, social, and political relations of life? A person once told me, by way of derision, that the course of studies in Trinity College, Dublin, was nothing but a round of Greek, geometry, and logic; and geometry, logic, and Greek; and logic, Greek, and geometry. This was, of course, a caricature; and yet, if these prime studies denoted a well-proportioned course in those departments of the classical, the mathematical, and the philosophical, of which they might be taken as the representatives, it was admirably adapted to produce a strong man among men, even though he may have had a very limited knowledge of the details of physical science" (*Professor Taylor Lewis, LL.D., on the True Idea of Liberal Education, Appendix to Report of New York Regents*, p. 22).

I frequently heard the complaint that the "physical sciences" were "crowding out" not only the classics, but the mathematics also, from the course of study pursued even at universities of as high a standing as Yale and Harvard. At the Free Academy Professor Docharty informed me that they have not time to teach mathematics thoroughly, and he thought that perhaps the programme was too extensive and multifarious.

The grammars and text books that are in use seemed to me to be fatal to anything like thorough grounding and intelligent progress. The grammars, "now grown to a large bulk,"* instead of contenting themselves with laying down principles simply and broadly, break these principles up into a multitude of minute rules, cumbering the memory and scarcely illuminating the understanding; while the editions of the classical authors in common use are mostly of that miserable type introduced, or at least largely propagated, by Professor Anthon, in which all difficulties in the text are smoothed over by a ready-made translation which supersedes effort at the moment and indisposes to effort in the future. I was so impressed with the defective character of these text books that when I was at Boston I ventured to write to my friend and old preceptor, Dr. Kennedy of Shrewsbury, and request him to send to the Master of the Latin High School a sample packet of his school grammars, &c., that my American friends might see how we manage these things in England,—a request with which, as was to be expected from his well-known liberality in such matters, he at once complied.† Character of text books.

The superior wisdom which presided over the organization of the Latin High School at Boston is shown both in the comparatively early period at which the study of both Latin and Greek is introduced into the course, and also in the early age at which it is recommended that boys intending to proceed to college should be placed at this school.‡

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* Mr. Philbrick's description of them (*Boston Report for* 1864, p. 145). In the Newhaven High School I found an exception to the general rule; the text books contained the mere text of the author without note or comment. All that was needed in the way of explanation was supplied by the teacher. But this was straining away too far in the opposite direction. One of the regulations of the Boston Latin school is that "no translations, nor any interpretation, "keys, or orders of construction shall be allowed in the school." But an "Interpretatio in usum serenissimi Delphini" could not be more mischievous than much of what is now permitted to find its way into the schools.

† There is a general complaint against the text books. "There is a sad lack "of simplicity in our text books, generally prepared by devotees in love with "their speciality. All possible *minutiæ* and details are crowded into them, and "they become encyclopædias for reference instead of compact and elementary "treatises for beginners. The memory is surfeited, and the pupil lost in the "wilderness. Information without mental vigour to use it is worthless lumber "on the brain. Compact, well-arranged, carefully-worded, elementary text "books, thoroughly mastered, would be a great improvement over the crammed "and cumbersome treatises, superficially studied, and poorly comprehended." —(*School Superintendent of Worcester, Mass., 28th Report*, p. 121.) "The "genius of education," say a committee specially appointed at Cincinnati to report on the "Memoriter System," "The genius of education sits like Niobe "in our schools, weeping over the maltreatment of the fresh and beautiful "minds which she would endow with so many charms; and Memory, the "deity to whom all this incense is offered, palls at last, and rejects the profuse "sacrifice!"—(*Cincinnati 28th Report*, p. 147.) Fault found with the text books.

‡ *See Boston Report for* 1864, p. 145-6, quoted above, p. 89, note. And yet some authorities are for throwing the commencement of the study, at least of Greek, to a later period than it occupies even now! "I think the course of study in "preparation for college should be made uniform by the Board of Regents "for all the colleges of the State, and that it should comprise in common "English, geography, descriptive and physical, grammar, reading and spelling, "with analysis of words and sentences, with great thoroughness beyond what

Comparative attainments of boys and girls.

The classics—and the mathematics too, for the matter of that—are studied to quite as high a point in America by young ladies as by young gentlemen, and in many of the mixed high schools the female students not only outnumber the males, but are generally more advanced in all departments of study. In the Chicago High School, exclusive of the normal department, which consists entirely of females, of 263 students, 113 were males and 150 females; and of 19 first-class prizes, 15 were carried off by the girls. In Detroit the number of students in the high school in 1863 was 123, of whom 75 were girls and 48 were boys; and I observed in the classified list of studies that the only pupils who are reported as reading "Homer's Iliad and Anacreon's Odes" are three girls; the only readers of "Horace's Odes and Art of Poetry" are three (probably the same three) girls; the only students of "elementary astronomy" are, for a third time, three girls; the only penetrators into the regions of "mental philosophy" are seven girls. But upon this feature of the American system—the style of education it provides for girls—I shall find a better place for speaking in the few criticisms I shall venture to offer upon it as a whole.

Boston English High School.

I have already mentioned the English High School at Boston as the one above all others that I visited in America which I should like the Commissioners to have seen at work as I myself saw it at work on the 10th of last June—the very type of a school for the middle classes of this country, managed in the most admirable spirit, and attended by just the sort of boys one would desire to see in such a school. I propose to append Mr. Philbrick's narrative of its history and his account of its objects and system at the close of this Report, and all I shall attempt to do here is briefly to record my own impressions. Its character corresponds to what I conceive to be the character of a German "Real School," and what it aims at giving is a thoroughly practical English education, with the addition of the French and German languages. It is attended by about 180 boys, ranging in age from 12 to 18, and is under the management of a master (Mr. Sherwin), two

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"is now usual; in mathematics, a complete knowledge of arithmetic and "algebra, with single and double entry book-keeping; in Latin, what is now "required for admission into the best colleges; in natural sciences, two terms "in natural philosophy, two in chemistry, one in anatomy and physiology, "one in botany, and one in geology; *omitting the Greek language entirely till the freshman year of college.* (*Principal Gardner of Whitestown Seminary on the "Course of Study preparatory for College," in Appendix to Report of New York Regents*, pp. 42–3.) He thinks that his plan would relieve the academies "of a great amount of expense now incurred in giving instruction in Greek," and believes that "two terms of instruction in Greek, given by a college "professor, under the stimulus of a large class," (who, by the hypothesis, at the outset do not know the alphabet,) "will advance the student quite as much in that language as he commonly is when he enters college." There is no end to paradoxes, and to those who suggest "that this plan will give less "prominence to the classics than at present," the Principal replies, "By no "means. I shall hope for greater accuracy and more extended knowledge in "the ancient and modern languages, and a much better acquaintance with the "Greek and Roman literature." (p. 46.) We will leave the Principal in the hands of Mr. Philbrick, who, I think, would hardly be for postponing Greek to the "freshman's year."

sub-masters, three ushers, and a teacher of drawing. All the instructors are required to be competent to give lessons in the French language, over and above the branches of an English education proper to their respective grades. The normal length of the course is three years. The first is occupied with a review of preparatory studies, using the text books authorized in the city grammar schools. Algebra and French are commenced, ancient geography and general history taught, and drawing lessons given. In the second year, algebra, French, and drawing are continued, and the subjects of geometry, book-keeping, rhetoric, Constitution of the United States, trigonometry (in its varied applications to surveying, navigation, mensuration, &c.), and the evidences of Christianity, are entered upon. The third year continues French, drawing, trigonometry, and evidences; drops algebra, geometry, and book-keeping; and takes up astronomy, natural philosophy, moral philosophy, political economy, natural theology, English literature, with a permission to commence Spanish in lieu of French, and to study a treatise on physical geography, at the discretion of the master. A fourth year is frequently spent by some pupils in the school, the studies assigned to which are astronomy, intellectual philosophy, logic, Spanish, geology, chemistry, mechanics, engineering, and the higher mathematics. It was not the programme of study (in which my own judgment would dispose me to make several alterations)* that elicited my admiration of this school—indeed I have learnt to attach very little weight either to programmes or systems—but the excellent spirit that seemed to pervade it, the healthy, honest, thorough way in which all the work on the part both of masters and pupils seemed to be done. By the regulations of the School Committee the instructors, while rearing the above somewhat imposing superstructure, are charged to keep a constant eye on the condition and stability of the foundations. They are to "pay particular attention to the penmanship "of the pupils, and give constantly such instruction in spelling, "reading, and English grammar as they may deem necessary to "make the pupils familiar with these fundamental branches of "a good education." Though the school is graded, individuals

Its course of study.

Its chief features.

* I do not quite like to see algebra and geometry dropped so soon; and I think, considering the objects of the school, that book-keeping might be continued right through the course. I should fear that a pupil, after two years intermission of practice, would have forgotten its principles and methods just when he was required to apply them. The subjects of the last year are too exclusively scientific and philosophical, perhaps, also, too multifarious. Geology, and chemistry, and engineering, might possibly be reserved with advantage for the "Institute of Technology," which is to succeed the English school. I should also like to see a little more of the "belles lettres" element infused throughout the course, and particularly into the two last years, from which, as things are, it is now almost entirely absent; for "English literature," as generally taught in American schools, means little more than memorizing a jejune and meagre manual. I am also a little surprised to find Spanish, as a second modern language, preferred to German; but I presume it is for a practical object, with an eye to the extensive commercial intercourse that is carried on with Cuba, Mexico, and the Spanish-speaking South American nationalities.

Criticisms of the programme.

are not lost sight of. The Master's eye is frequently brought to bear on the condition of each division, and once a quarter in each class there is a general review of all the previous studies of that quarter. The entrance examination is peremptorily required to be strict, and no student is admitted without a thorough knowledge of all the preparatory studies. In a word, everything is done to sustain the intellectual tone of the school at a high pitch, yet without straining; while there was an honesty, a frankness, and an absence of restraint in the "rapports" between the teacher and the taught which indicated that the moral atmosphere of the school was as healthy and bracing as the intellectual.* Taking it for all in all, and as accomplishing the end at which it professes to aim, the English High School at Boston struck me as the model school of the United States. I wish we had a hundred such in England.

Use of the black-board.

A noticeable feature in the instruction given in these schools is the extent to which the black-board is used, not, as with us, chiefly by the teacher, but almost exclusively by the pupils. All round three sides of the class room is let into the wall a panel either of slate or covered with some plaster composition,† which is the instrument understood by the "black-board." It is at a convenient elevation from the floor of the room, and varies from four to six feet in width. The upper portion, and sometimes too large a portion, of its surface is frequently reserved for drawings, sometimes touched in with coloured chalks, of a more or less artistic character, which I think are often allowed to occupy the space too long, and indeed are even bequeathed by the class of a former year to their successors. For exercises in Greek and Latin composition, for developing the paradigm of a Greek or

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Military drill.

* Nor is physical culture neglected. The boys go through a regular drill, I think twice a week, under the orders of a United States officer, on Boston Common. I saw them put through their evolutions, which they executed, not with the beautiful precision of the cadets at West Point, but still with very creditable steadiness and promptitude.

Military drill has been introduced with excellent effect into the Boston boys' schools in consequence of a movement of public opinion in that direction in 1863. In the Report of the School Committee, English precedents are quoted for its introduction; but the Americans have, characteristically, taken the matter up with an energy and completeness which almost give to it the position of an original idea. The special committee that recommended its adoption did so on the ground that it would be both "a means of physical training, and "ultimately of national defence;" and the belief of its promoters is that it will be found to be "not only the best system of physical exercises for the "schools, but at the same time that it will inculcate a more manly spirit in the "boys, strengthen and extend their faculties, invigorate their intellects, make "them more graceful and gentlemanly in their bearing, and render them com-"petent at the age of 16 or 18 years to enter the field as privates or officers of "any regular military organization."—(*Boston Report for* 1864, p. 33.)

Composition of black-boards.

† They have not thoroughly decided in America what is the best material of which to construct black-boards. It was a subject of discussion among the Ohio teachers at Cincinnati. In the most recent buildings I thought slate seemed to be superseding composition, which is found to have a tendency to crack and flake off. All along the bottom of the panel runs a groove for the chalk, and at convenient intervals a place for the rubber, which is not a dusting-cloth, as with us, but a flat short-bristled brush with a handle at the back. It is efficient, but produces a good deal of dust.

French verb, for the analysis of a sentence, for illustrative sketches in anatomy or mechanics, as well as for the more usual purposes of geometrical demonstrations, and arithmetical or algebraic examples, the black-board is called into play. It is frequently divided by white vertical lines into compartments of a convenient size; and you will see 18 or 20 students at once ranged in front of their allotted space, and working out their different problems with great activity. One great advantage in the method is that, when the results come under the critical eye of the teacher, who generally calls upon each pupil to exhibit or explain his own performance, it enables him to contrast before the class, (who by the hypothesis of a graded school are equal in their attainments, and each therefore competent to understand and criticise his neighbour,) different styles of setting out work, besides its further action as a stimulant upon the pupils to do their best when they know that their work will presently be exposed to the criticism of all their class-mates.*

Lessons are generally short†—I don't refer to the time they

No specially

* I can remember the operation of this feeling when I was a schoolboy at Shrewsbury. It was the fashion there for the composition exercises of the sixth form, when they had passed under the revision of the head master, to be laid on the table for any boy in the school who chose to read. We dreaded this criticism of our schoolfellows far more than the remarks, though they were sometimes sharp and caustic, of our master. A false quantity, or any similar blunder, would be a standing joke against the perpetrator for a week. I attribute not a little to the action of this influence the remarkable excellence in Greek and Latin composition which so many Shrewsbury boys have attained. In America, where human nature is so much more sensitive in respect both of praise and blame, the influence would be more potent still.

Influence of mutual criticism.

† In the "Sophomore" class, that is, the pupils of the third year, in the New York Free Academy, I found that 24 lines of the Anabasis was considered a fair amount for a lesson of an hour. At the high school, West Roxbury, Mass., 20 lines of an oration of Cicero—the third against Catiline—was the quantity prepared. In the girls' high school at Boston, three stanzas of an ode of Horace (*lib.* i. 2) was thought a sufficient result of an over-night's home preparation. I must say that the American teachers seemed to me to push the principle of "doing a little well" rather too far. It may lead to a a mere frittering away of time, and to an elaboration of details burdensome to the memory and not expansive of the understanding, or to a discursiveness which is fatal to a systematic appreciation of a subject. The mischief, too, is intensified when the pupil's mind is required to be occupied with so many subjects at once. In the Report of the New York Superintendent, it is considered as quite a moderate requirement that "the number of studies prescribed" at one time for the highest grade of the grammar schools "is but "seven," and that therefore "the teacher has no excuse for overburdening "the mental or physical faculties of any of his pupils."—(*New York 23rd Report*, p. 11.) There is a tendency, however, to diminish the number of concurrent studies; and, perhaps, in the reaction, things will run to as great excess the other way. At least the Controllers of the Philadelphia schools ask in a plaintive tone, "Cannot our public school pupils learn all the branches "which are usually considered as being within the term 'a good English "'education,' when other institutions add the languages, dead and living, "higher branches of mathematics, and a host of other studies, to those we "teach? Why is it that geography is discontinued in the higher classes of "the grammar school? Why is it that history is so much neglected? Why "is it that algebra is banished, and our list of studies is diminishing year "after year? Simply because of the cry, 'hot-house pressure,' and because "of a desire to yield to an erroneous public impression."—(*Forty-sixth Annual Report*, p. 36.)

Length of lessons.

Concurrent studies.

noticeable methods.

occupy, but to the quantity of work done—and divided into two parts, called respectively the "review" and the "advance;" the former a retrospective glance at the lesson of yesterday, the latter a step onwards. I did not observe anything very special in the methods of teaching, beyond the use of the black-board just referred to, and beyond the remarkable energy and vivacity of the teachers, answered in most cases by corresponding interest and life on the part of the pupils.* Three lessons, however, which I happened to hear, all at Boston, have left a very distinct and a very favourable impression upon my mind. One was an "advance" lesson in reading in the Poplar Street Primary School; another, a lesson in French at the English school; the last, a lesson in English literature (I suppose I must call it), at the Girls' High School. I was also extremely gratified by some exercises in vocal culture, practised under the directions of Professor Munro, which I was told had trebled the vocal power of a class of girls, without calling upon them for any greater physical exertion.

Three particular lessons described.

1. Reading lesson.

With regard to the reading lesson, I noticed that the first step taken before reading a fresh passage is to pronounce the words simultaneously with a good deal of deliberation and precision. If a hard word is approached and a pause ensues, they are bidden analyse it, and—here is the noticeable thing—enunciate not the *names* of the letters, but the *sounds*.†

Teachers devise their own methods.

* In fact, as a rule, teachers, a small proportion of whom have been specially trained, generally pursue their own methods, and those mostly developed out of their own aptitudes. They are rarely even limited by a time table. The only real restraint upon their perfect freedom of action is the programme of study marked out for their grade. To that they are rigidly bound, and their method is either approved or condemned by its results. As a consequence of the inadequate extent to which the training of teachers is at present carried, there is less *routine* in American teaching, but more *empiricism*. In a great degree, however, the teacher is like the poet—"*nascitur, non fit*,"—and American soil certainly seems very favourable to his production. It must be admitted, also, that natural cleverness is a better educational instrument to work with than mere acquired mechanical power. The latter may get exhausted, or be deficient in adaptiveness; the former is fertile and perennial. It should be remembered, too, in this connexion, that the large majority of American teachers are women, who possessing perhaps more resources and mother wit, require, as a correlative, a freer field. At any rate, whatever be the philosophy, the fact remains, that method in America varies *ad libitum*, and that a teacher is continually called upon, and always permitted, to exhibit inventive power, and try a fresh plan.

American reading.

† Aristotle tells us that there are such things as ἄσημοι φωνάι (*Rhet.* iii. 2, 11.) Americans, however, do not consider that what are called the "consonants" of the alphabet belong to the class, for they attempt, scorning the aid of a vowel, to give them each a special value and a significant sound. The result is rather curious, and some of the sounds evoked are not altogether grateful to the ear; but there is, certainly, a value in the method, for the best reading in American schools—and their *best* reading is very good, whatever their worst may be—is formed under it.

Good reading is an accomplishment upon which Americans very justly set great store, and they are somewhat fastidious upon the matter. "To say that "reading is more imperfectly taught than any other branch would," writes the superintendent of the Chicago schools, "be saying what is generally true "of other cities as well as of our own."—(*Tenth Report*, p. 17.) To my ear, the great defect in American reading is its want of naturalness and simplicity; it is too laboured, too intense, too self-conscious. As in so many other cases,

The French lesson was a translation of a passage from the text book of the class, followed by an extemporized dialogue, in the shape of question and answer, between the teacher and the boys, in a lively, playful strain, yet upon matters of a practical kind;—in this case, I remember, connected with some of their previous lessons in natural philosophy,—in which I thought it a great thing achieved to overcome a boy's natural, or, at least, ordinary reluctance to talk freely in a strange tongue. I do not say that the pronunciation would have been considered perfect in Paris, but at any rate there was no silly hesitancy, and not many serious offences against either accidence or syntax. 2. French lesson.

The third lesson of which I have spoken, and which, for want of a better name, I have called a lesson in English literature, was a composite lesson to a class of girls from 18 to 19 years of age in reading, paraphrasing, grammatical analysis, mutual criticism, and general literary appreciation and taste. The class had commenced the play of Hamlet, and were engaged that day on a passage from the first scene of the first act. It was read by one girl, paraphrased by another; the paraphrase had to run the gauntlet of general criticism; questions were proposed as to the precise meaning of this phrase, the definite allusion in that; objections were raised to this and that interpretation; illustrations were adduced, and the whole exercise was characterized by much spirit and life. It was, perhaps, a little too elaborate, and occupied rather too much time. At the rate of movement of that morning,—though it might have been retarded for my special benefit,—it would require a term to get through an act, and a couple of years at least to complete the play. But, apart from this, the exercise appeared to me profitable.* 3. Lesson in English literature.

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the habit of minutiosity has told with ill effect here. There are supposed to be at least 50 different styles of expression, some of them distinguished by almost grotesque names. In one of the Boston grammar schools, I heard an exercise in "Reading with Expression," in which the whole class simultaneously passed with astonishing rapidity through, I am afraid to say how many, varieties of elocutionary expression, "from grave to gay, from lively to severe." It was an excellent school in all respects, but this particular exhibition, though I think the teacher was proud of it, did not edify me. It seemed a thing overdone. It would be most distressing to have to listen to such emphatically good reading for half an hour. In England, we sin exactly in the opposite way; and an incurable slovenliness, arising from the fear of appearing stilted or theatrical, or from a lethargic and indolent nature, spoils the reading of many even of our best schools. The articulation of Americans generally is very distinct, and their speakers and preachers rarely fall into our bad habit of dropping the voice at the end of the period, thus cutting off, to the listener, the thought at its most vital point.

* I cannot help fancying that this must be the school—perhaps the very class, similarly engaged—his visit to which Mr. Anthony Trollope has described with so much humour. "In one of the girls' schools," he says, speaking of Boston, "they were reading Milton, and when we entered were discussing the "nature of the pool in which the devil is described as wallowing. The question "had been raised by one of the girls—a pool, so called, was supposed to con- "tain but a small amount of water, and how could the devil, being so large, get "into it? Then came the origin of the word 'pool'—from *palus*, a marsh, as "we were told, some dictionary attesting to the fact—and such a marsh might Mr. Trollope's description of a similar lesson.

Methods,

Two other methods, or perhaps, more correctly speaking, habits, of which in one I do not know that there is much value, and the other I consider decidedly mischievous, prevail extensively in American schools, and are specially noticeable in the schools of New York. The first is the habit, in the solution of problems in mental arithmetic, of repeating the question by the scholar before attempting the answer; the other is the habit of rapid answering, which is almost universally encouraged. The first is supposed to give precision and distinctness to the pupil's ideas, but it soon becomes a mere mechanical process, imparting an element of anything rather than interest to the lesson.* The second has for its object the accustoming children to deal with questions promptly and vigorously, and preventing the smallest approach to drowsiness, but it issues in a great many random and reckless answers, and almost precludes the exercise of reflection.†

1. Of repeating questions,

2. Of rapid answering.

American text books.

I have already said something about American text books. As a rule I do not think that the best American text books are better than the best of the same kind that are in use in schools at home; the *worst* seemed about as bad as bad could be.‡ The best

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" cover a large expanse. The 'Palus Mæotis' was then quoted. And so we " went on till Satan's theory of political liberty—'Better to reign in hell than " serve in heaven'—was thoroughly discussed and understood. These girls of " sixteen and seventeen got up one after another, and gave their opinions on the " subject—how far the devil was right, and how far he was manifestly wrong. I " was attended by one of the directors or guardians of the school, and the " teacher, I thought, was a little embarrassed by her position. But the girls " themselves were as easy in their demeanour as though they were stitching " handkerchiefs at home."—(*North America*, vol. i. p. 413.)

Mr. Trollope's keen eye has caught the ludicrous side of the picture; I was more impressed by the serious. No doubt, occasionally, discussions of a rather delicate and embarrassing nature may be started; but I think he would allow with me that the lesson developed some useful qualities of mind, even if the young ladies were rather more self-possessed in the presence of strangers than he expected to see them. It should be remembered that the incursion of visitors into the show-schools of Boston and New York almost amounts to a nuisance, and necessarily leads to a mischievous degree of parade, which produces, perhaps unconsciously, that self-reliant air which, in young people, to an English eye is not pleasing.

Importance attached to correct expression of ideas.

* The following extract from Mr. Wells' little treatise on "Graded Schools" will show how much importance American teachers attach, not only to precise ideas, but to correct expression of them. "Recitations in arithmetic require " constant watchfulness on the part of the teacher, to secure fulness and accuracy " of expression. The following are illustrations of common faults: (a) 'If one " 'cord of wood cost $5, six cords will cost 5 times 6,' instead of 'six times $5.' " (b) 'If one cord of wood cost $5, six will cost 6 times 5,' instead of 'six cords " 'will cost six times $5' (two errors). (c) 'In $\frac{1}{9}$ of a dollar there are as many " 'dollars as 9 is contained in 36,' instead of 'as many dollars as the number of " 'times 9 is contained in 36,' or 'as many dollars as 9 is contained times in " '36.' (d) 'To subtract one fraction from another, reduce the fractions to a " 'common denominator, and subtract the numerator,' or 'subtract one nume- " 'rator from the other,' instead of 'subtract the numerator of the subtrahend " 'from the numerator of the minuend.'"—(*The Graded School*, p. 83.)

† See remarks above, p. 122, and quotation from Mr. Philbrick there, note ‡.

Opinion of American text books in Upper Canada.

‡ I will leave the educational authorities of Canada to speak of one blemish in text books published in the United States, which I did not notice to any serious extent myself, but which, if true, constitutes a considerable defect in a moral point of view—it is that, in their exuberant patriotism, they not unfrequently distort historic truth. "In regard to the exclusion of American text

"Readers" appeared to me to be those in use in the Boston schools—Hillard's series—which, though somewhat apt to grow declamatory in the higher numbers, certainly afford considerable scope for elocutionary effects. The series generally used in the schools of New York is Willson's—a series of the same type as that of the Irish National Society, containing a mass of matter more suitable for giving information in particular departments of knowledge than for teaching how to read with fluency and expression. Mr. Philbrick of Boston has just got out an excellent "Speaker," which promises to be a great boon to the upper classes of schools. 1. Readers.

" books from our schools," says the Chief Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada, " I have explained as I have had opportunity that it is not " because they are foreign books simply that they are excluded, although it is " politic to use our own in preference to foreign publications, but because they " are, with very few exceptions, anti-British in every sense of the word. They " are unlike the school-books of any other enlightened people, so far as I have " the means of knowing. The school-books of Germany, France, and Great " Britain contain nothing hostile to the institutions or derogatory to the charac- " ter of any other nation. I know not of a single English school-book in which " there is an allusion to the United States not calculated to excite a feeling of " respect for their inhabitants and government. It is not so with American " school-books. With very few exceptions they abound in statements and " allusions prejudicial to the institutions and character of the British nation. " . . And as to the influence of such publications, I believe, though silent and " imperceptible in its operations, it is more extensive and powerful than is " generally supposed. I believe such books are one element of powerful influence " against the established government of the country. From facts which have " come to my knowledge, I believe it will be found, on inquiry, that in precisely " those parts of Upper Canada where U. S. books had been used most exten- " sively, there the spirit of the insurrection in 1837 and 1838 was most preva- " lent."—(*Special Report on Measures adopted to supply School-sections with Text books*, 1858, p. 22.)

It is certainly too much the fashion in America to speak contemptuously of the institutions and social condition of other peoples. As I write, my eye falls upon a passage in the Annual Report of the School Commissioner of Rhode Island, who is apt to use rhetorical language penned under the influence of excited feelings, which almost justifies the above strong statement of Dr. Ryerson. " Here," says the Commissioner, " we have free labour, free schools, " and a free people. No man so poor, no man so low, but he may, if he chooses, " clothe himself with power, and crown himself an aristocrat! Here the people " pledge themselves, unconditionally and incontrovertibly, to the maintenance of " the Constitution and the laws. Elsewhere free labour is a degradation, free " schools are a by-word, and a free people an absurdity. There poverty is per- " petual, and ignorance is condemned to helpless, hopeless servitude. There the " masses are the tools of a supercilious and traitorous oligarchy, lifting its red " hand against all constitutions and all laws—a curse to any people."—(*R. I. 19th Report*, p. 9.) The contrast *may* be intended to be only between the Northern and Southern States, but its language seems to be too general for that, and, anyhow, it exhibits the supercilious spirit which I have lamented. Confirmation of this opinion.

I add another picture of ourselves drawn by the hand of a School Committee in Massachusetts. " England, with all her intelligence and Christian enlighten- " ment, and material wealth, and political greatness, has never had, and cannot " have to-day, a system of schools open alike to the children of rich and poor, " and maintained at the public expense. England, consequently, has to-day, " as she has always had, a mass of ignorance and social degradation of which " we know nothing (?), and which constitutes, to all intents and purposes, a " low caste separated by a broad gulf from the classes above, a class disfran- " chised and proscribed, a dead sea of moral corruption, a prolific hotbed of " political discontent and social animosity." (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 88.)

2. Dictionary.

On almost every teacher's desk lies a quarto copy of Webster's Dictionary, a valuable book of reference, not always, however, apparently, cared for so well as it deserves.*

3. Writing books.

The series of writing books most in use is Spencer's, and the style of writing most admired the Spencerian, giving the most elaborate directions as to the shape and formation of the different letters, and resulting in a hand as far removed from what is pleasant to the eye and from what the late Lord Palmerston considered to be the perfection of handwriting, firm, compact, distinct, as it is possible to be.

The text books mostly American compilations.

In the Philadelphia High School I observed that a few British text books—*e.g.* Blair's Rhetoric, Fownes's Chemistry—were used, and the employment of Liddell and Scott's abridged lexicon is nearly universal in classical schools; but as a general rule those in use are almost exclusively compiled by American book-makers, and pushed into the market by American booksellers. I have already quoted Mr. Barnard's remark that the book-selling interest, reluctant as he was to say so, must be considered as one of the influences arrayed *against* the common school. He had in view the abduction of many of the best school teachers and their conversion into agents by the publishers.† A still more evil result is the needless multiplication of text books, and the jobbery that is practised to get them, when made, introduced into the schools.‡

Treatment of Webster's Dictionary.

* "This great work," says a New York school commissioner, "was originally introduced into every school in this district; but, alas! the sad relics of departed greatness are all that remains. It is to be found in only 58 at present, 28 being entirely destitute. Forty of said dictionaries are shamefully mutilated, marked, and torn, and only 18 are in good condition. Two only have been stolen! It is hoped they have received better usage.

Manner of using the dictionary.

With regard to the use the dictionary should be put to, the same writer remarks: "Many teachers have no systematic plan of using the dictionary. They may occasionally refer to it themselves, and allow their scholars to do the same, when they find an uncommon word, but there should be some system, in order to render the book as useful as it may be in a school. Scholars of proper age and attainments should have a blank book, and while studying their lessons transcribe every word the definition of which they do not perfectly understand, noting the book, page, &c., for future reference, and then referring to the dictionary select the definition applicable to the word in the connexion in which it is used, and copy this opposite the word. In this way a vocabulary of common and scientific terms would be mastered and treasured up in the mind, which would be of more value to the scholar than the recitations of a whole quarter, performed in the parrot-like manner that characterizes too many of our schools." (*New York 11th Report*, p. 133.)

† See *above*, p. 24, note ‡.

Opinions of the evil arising from multiplication of text books.

‡ I append some expressions of opinion with regard to the multiplication of text books. "If," says the Superintendent of schools at Worcester, Mass., "with so much of the school life given to the science of numbers, our children do not become accomplished arithmeticians, a serious defect must exist somewhere. We think that the defects which we discover, and we confess them to be numerous, are not so much to be ascribed to defect in teaching as to defective books. It is far less the fault of the teacher than of the publisher and the book-maker, who have expanded the arithmetics, of which there should never be but two, one mental and one written, into a series of five, through each of which the child must wade as through a swamp, and the wonder is that in the attempt he does not oftener get swamped. In these prolix treatises the principles which ought to be as simply, concisely, and

Whether anything in the shape of actual bribery of trustees or teachers is employed for that purpose I will not take upon myself to affirm, though hints that such is the case are dropped, not obscurely, in some of the reports; but a common and avowed practice is to make a deduction of 40 to 50 per cent. on the selling price of the first lot taken for the use of the school, in order to secure the subsequent introduction of the book, and to remove any financial scruples that might resist a change.

Apparatus in cities.

The large city schools, especially the schools of higher grade, are supplied with apparatus of every kind on a scale of the utmost —I had almost said of superfluous—liberality. Nothing is omitted, in the way of maps, diagrams, books of reference, cabinets of objects, appliances for illustrating the principles of natural philosophy, and so forth, that the most advanced educationist could either suggest or require. The high school at Philadelphia, in addition to very complete cabinets of philosophical apparatus, is fitted up with an observatory on the roof, containing a powerful equatorial telescope and other costly astronomical instruments, which the students are taught to use. Indeed, if one formed an opinion from the apparatus only, one would suppose that a much higher standard of mathematical and philosophical

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" clearly stated as human language can state them, are buried in a mass of " words, enigmas, and puzzles, which distend to 50 pages what ought to be " comprised in 10, and every principle is burdened with an array of examples " which serve rather to confuse than to enlighten the mind, and by their order, " arrangement, and mode of statement to conceal rather than to reveal what " the child is seeking to learn" (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 119). The above description is true of other text books besides those in arithmetic.

Uniformity recommended.

The Rhode Island Commissioner, advocating the use of a uniform series of text books, authorized and required by the State (as is the rule in Canada), notices, as one advantage, that it would relieve the schools from an existing nuisance. " It would certainly do away with the somewhat annoying visits of " itinerant school-book agents, which are becoming quite frequent, and under " our present system are in some degree required. At one of our Institutes a " teacher who was present remarked that he had had the pleasure of receiving " seven visits during a single term—two from parents and five from book " agents." (*19th Report*, p. 34.) The same writer dilates on the extent and seriousness of the evil. " In many schools which I have visited I have found " two or three kinds of readers, as many of spellers, geographies, and arith- " metics. Of the latter, in one school I found five varieties. It is easy to see " that no teacher can afford to supply himself with all these from his own " resources; *he must take them away from his scholars.* Nor can he be expected to " be so thoroughly familiar with all as to possess himself of that ready prepara- " tion essential to enthusiastic and successful teaching. I know of no evil " so easily remedied that is working so serious an injury to our schools." (*Ibid.*, p. 35.)

A cause of the diversity.

One probable cause of much of this diversity is noticed by a New York Commissioner. " One of the principal causes of this diversity " (aside from agents) is that teachers going out from our academies and high " schools wish to use the same text books that they have been in the habit of " using themselves, and can induce only a part of the scholars to purchase a " ' better book,' while the remainder use the old one. I wish something " might be done in the way of legislation to remedy this evil in text books." (*New York 11th Report*, p. 322.) In the more perfectly organized systems of the cities the Boards of Education do adopt something like a uniform rule in this respect; but even in New York variations exist, though kept within limits by the controlling eye of the Superintendent.

knowledge was reached than other evidence leads me to believe is actually attained in the schools.

In rural districts.

In rural districts, naturally enough, the state of things is very different. Black-boards, it is true, are found in nearly all schools, but not always black-boards in very good condition, nor always chalk, without which the black-board is of little use, and very frequently nothing beyond a black-board. Even in Massachusetts, no longer ago than in 1861, the Secretary of the Board of Education regrets to "say that *most* of the public schools of the State are "destitute of maps and apparatus suited to aid the teacher and "the pupils."* But in this, as in all other points connected with the condition of the school, one district differs essentially from another, and the root of the difference lies in the extent to which liberal ideas with respect to education have penetrated the neighbourhood. It is the story of what is constantly seen in every part of England over again.

School buildings.

And what is true of the apparatus and school-room appliances is true of the school buildings generally. Nothing can be finer or more suitable to the purpose, though very seldom with any pretensions to what is called "architectural character," than some of the new school-houses which have been erected within the last five or six years in all the great cities of the northern and western states of the Union. They are buildings generally of from three to four stories high, solidly constructed of brick, some of them with double-sash windows, fitted with interior venetian shutters, with elaborate, but not very successful, systems of heating and ventilation,† as nearly fire-proof as possible,—and always

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Samples of meagre apparatus.

* *Massachusetts 24th Report*, p. 80. I confirm my statement by two instances picked up at hazard, one from New York the other from Massachusetts. "Every school house has a black-board, but few have globes, maps, or other "apparatus." (*11th New York Report*, p. 169.) "A large black-board, outline "maps, and a globe ought to be found in every school-room. And your com- "mittee are sorry to be obliged to report that nearly all our school-houses and "their locations are just the opposite of what they should be, and would better "befit criminals than scholars. Not a globe can be found in any school, and "but few outline maps, or remnants of what once were outline maps. Where "black-boards exist they are generally small, and so much out of repair as to "be nearly useless." (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 165.) But this must represent the condition of a very backward township.

Heating and ventilation.

† Though much attention has been paid in America to the best methods of heating and ventilating school-rooms, it is admitted on all hands that the plans hitherto employed have been singularly unsuccessful, and many persons are coming back to the idea that the old-fashioned "unpatented" way of opening doors and windows is the best mode of purifying the air of crowded rooms. The most recent and most approved method for heating is by the use of steam, and is thus described: "The heating pipes are brought together in a chamber "in the basement of the building. This chamber is supplied by conductors "with cold air from the outside of the building, and the heated air passes "by conductors from the hot-air chamber into the different rooms in the same "manner as from an ordinary hot-air furnace. The consumption of fuel is "somewhat greater than in the buildings heated by pipes which are placed in "the rooms to be warmed; but this increased expenditure is mainly owing to "the fact that rooms heated by pipes around the walls are of necessity poorly "ventilated. The saving is made by heating the air once, and then breathing "it over and over; whereas, by the improved arrangement, the air is heated,

arranged with a view to facilities of escape in case of fire, with broad staircases, and doors opening outwards,—of a nearly uniform and unpretentious pattern, costing with the lot on which they

" used once, and then removed by introducing a fresh supply. This may safely " be pronounced one of the best methods of heating school buildings yet " devised, since it secures a requisite degree of heat, furnishes a constant " supply of fresh, warm air, and insures a good action of the ventiducts " (*Wells on Graded Schools*, p. 177). This is called "heating by steam," but the more proper title would have been, as it seems to me, "heating by hot air." I do not pretend to understand the mysteries of warming and ventilating rooms, beyond knowing, in the simplest and most obvious way, when their temperature is comfortable and the air feels fresh and pure. The last sentence in the above description states what the method ought to do, rather than what it does. All the systems in use are alike pronounced not to produce the results desired. Here is a report of the state of things in New York: " Some of the " school buildings which are heated by furnaces are entirely too cold for chil- " dren to remain in during school hours. The thermometer in these seldom " rises above 50°, except in mild weather, and in many of the class rooms the " temperature is often lower. Two years' experience of such furnaces is suffi- " cient, and if they cannot be made to answer the purposes for which they " were placed in the buildings, they should be removed to give place to better " ones, if any can be found, and, if not, to the old wood stove, the heat from " which is undoubtedly much healthier. In some of the schools in the up- " town wards so cold have been the class rooms that the children in severe " weather have been dismissed at noon. . . . In this connexion I may " add, that no system of ventilation has been adopted in the construction of " new buildings which has been successful. The crowded class rooms are " filled with impure air, which must engender disease if not removed. This is " partially accomplished by lowering the upper sash in winter and the opening " of all the windows and doors during the usual recess. The committee on " warming and ventilation gave to this subject an extended investigation, " obtaining the views of scientific gentlemen, and arrived at the conclusion that " no perfect system could be successfully introduced into our school buildings " without the aid of machinery" (*Report of Mr. Assistant-Superintendent Jones for* 1865, p. 6).

Deficiency in the plans.

An echo to this description comes from Massachusetts. " Much as has been " said on ventilation," writes Mr. Northrop, " the *majority of the school-houses* " *in the State remain unventilated*, or at best ill-ventilated. Any apparatus for " this purpose, other than windows and doors, is still the exception. Bad air is " the greatest annoyance encountered in visiting schools. In visiting eight " schools at Melbury the other day, I enjoyed the luxury of breathing pure air " in each. The cause of this rare phenomenon was not any superior apparatus, " but the following printed regulation of the school committee, conspicuously " placed in every room: 'The windows that will not directly admit the air " ' upon the children should, during the hours of the school session, be dropped " ' a few inches from the top, and at recess and at the close of the school, both " ' morning and afternoon, all the windows should be thrown wide open for a " ' few moments, so as to change the air of the school room and effectually " ' remove from it all impurities.'" (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 52.) If this simple " unpatented " method of ventilating rooms (as a New York commissioner calls it) were oftener practised, both in America and in England, it might save State Agents and Inspectors the trouble of making recommendations, bound to succeed in theory, certain to fail in practice. Notwithstanding his regret at the absence of " apparatus for the purpose," Mr. Northrop seems to consider " fresh air through the window " the best system of ventilation after all.

State of things in Massachusetts.

Mr. Wells gives the caution that " to insure the safety of the school, the " boiler should, if practicable, be located outside the main building," a caution, considering the ugly habit that American boilers have of bursting without notice, very necessary to be borne in mind, but, as far as I observed, never or very rarely acted on. There is a strange inconsistency in America between the theoretic appreciation of, and the practical indifference to, the value of human life.

stand from $40,000 to $100,000 according to their size. The general arrangement is pretty uniform also. In the basement are the heating furnaces and ventilating apparatus, coal and wood cellars, and a good deal of often unoccupied space. Above that the ground floor is devoted to covered play rooms. The school rooms proper commence on the first story, and consist (in New York at least) of a large assembling hall surrounded by smaller class rooms, this arrangement being continued for as many stories, probably, as there are grades or departments in the school. The character of the desks and school-room fittings is well known. The seats have all backs to them; the desks are either of polished birch or mahogany, sometimes a single desk to each scholar, sometimes and more commonly each desk accommodating two; and everything wears the appearance of admirable fitness for work, combined with perfect order and cleanliness. A peculiarity in the American arrangements is that the whole area of the room is generally occupied with seats and desks, and as a consequence the children look very densely packed, and as a further consequence the air of the rooms not unfrequently becomes fetid and unwholesome. If it were not that a mass of American children are much more easily reduced to order, and are perhaps more sensible of the value of order, than the same number of English children would be, a good deal of practical inconvenience and confusion would result from the crowded condition of many of the rooms. As it was, I observed none.

Arrangement of buildings.

Case of Philadelphia.

In respect of buildings, however, the city of Philadelphia is somewhat, for the moment at least, behind its neighbours. The President of the Board of Controllers has lately (September 5, 1865) made a communication to the Board, in which, in view of the possibility of the approach of cholera, he thus describes some of the school-houses: "We know," says Mr. Shippen, "that "many of our schools are kept in damp and badly-ventilated "church basements, partly underground; in private dwellings, "which in a neighbouring city would be called 'tenement houses;' "in halls, in engine houses; in fact, in almost every kind of "structure that is covered with a roof, not even excluding the "rope walk and the stable." And the city council have just voted an appropriation of $800,000—about 125,000*l.*—for the express purpose of enlarging and improving the accommodating power of their schools.

Country school-houses.

In the country, again, buildings vary infinitely. In the New England States most of the rural school-houses, and not a few even of those in the towns, are what are called "framed" buildings, that is timber structures, with walls of weather-boarding outside and lath and plaster inside; sometimes of two stories high, when a graded school in two departments has to be provided for; neatly painted white, standing in a sizeable plot of ground planted with "shade trees,"—on which great store is set, as a shelter from the excessive heat of summer;—altogether forming, if not a picturesque, at any rate an unmistakeable and interesting object in the landscape. In the State of New York, the Union Free Schools,

which are beginning to prevail, are mostly solid, handsome, two or three storied buildings, but, as a set-off, there are 226 "log" school houses in the "Empire State" still.* By law of the State

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* The figures for 1864 are: Log school-houses, 226; "framed," 9,941; brick, 1,002; stone, 543; total, 11,712 (*New York 11th Report*, p. 8). From the same Report I take two illustrative pictures; one paints things, I take it, at their average, or perhaps a little above the average, the other at their worst. In the second district of Columbia county "there are 106 school-houses; 100 of them "are 'frame,' and the remainder are brick. Some are in good condition, but "most are in bad order. There are some which have sufficient playgrounds "and yards; others have neither, but are located as near the highway as pos- "sible without interfering with the privileges of the travelling community. All "the schoolrooms are heated by stoves, most of them using wood. The rooms "are generally well ventilated, some by lowering the upper sash of the "windows. In some districts convenient and beautiful edifices have been "erected, with particular reference to the health and comfort of the teacher as "well as the scholar. Joint district No. 4 has a model edifice, pleasantly "located near the highway, painted white, with green blinds, the inside taste- "fully arranged, the desks comfortable, handsomely grained, a fine table for "the teacher, a good black-board, globe, maps, and all the apparatus necessary "for the use of the pupils, good closets for hanging the clothes of the children, "as well as shelves for the dinner baskets; and last, though not least, a suitable "room for coal and other fuel—an evidence of the increasing interest felt and "appreciated, as well as manifested, by the inhabitants in the glorious cause of "education" (*New York 11th Report*, p. 160). State of school-houses in New York.

And now for the gloomier view. In Essex county it is said, "Most of the "school-houses in this part of the country are framed buildings, erected as "cheaply as possible, without particular reference to warmth, beauty, or con- "venience. Three districts have no houses at all, and some eight more would "not, I think, be in a worse condition if the same was true of them. Most of "the school-houses are situated on the line of the highway, without other "playground than the road. Only one has an enclosed yard. The out- "buildings in more than half of the districts are merely temporary sheds, "rudely erected with posts set in the ground for a frame, to which are nailed "boards forming a shelter for the wood. Nearly all the school-houses are "supplied with a black-board of some sort—a very necessary part of the appa- "ratus, though in too many instances rendered useless for want of chalk. "About three-fourths of the schools have a chair and a desk for the teacher, "and in one-fifth may be found a map of some kind; most of the stoves are "good, but some are old castaway cook-stoves, and others are patched up with "flat stones and old shovel-blades to keep the fire from falling out. A few of "the school-houses have ventilators; some, in their present condition, do not "need them, the air being sufficiently pure on account of its ready ingress and "egress through cracks and broken windows; while in some, again, the air is "kept in a confined, unhealthy state" (*Ibid.* p. 177.)

Even in Massachusetts sometimes things are but little better. In one town- ship, of 22 school-houses five are reported as creditable "to the taste and bene- "volence of those by whose energy and perseverance they were built and are "preserved;" 12 "serve as tolerable shelter from scorching sun and pelting "storms;" the other five "are wholly unworthy of the name they bear." It is asserted that there are six school-houses in the township which a committee of carpenters, appointed for the purpose, "appraised at less than $76, about 12*l.*, "each, a sum that would little more than build a hovel for a cow;" and some reflections are drawn from the lessons of "carelessness and immorality" taught by "broken doors, black ceilings, patched walls, and half-demolished seats" (*28th Report*, p. 24; see also pp. 165, 145). And sometimes in Massachu- setts.

I may add that I was pleased to notice the attention paid in city schools to the condition of the yards and offices; they are kept sweet and wholesome, and anything like offensive scribbling or drawing is immediately detected, and would be severely punished. The masters often pointed to the irreproachable state of these places as a sort of indirect test of the moral tone of their school. Un- Attention paid to yards and offices.

not more than $800,—about 160*l.* at the normal value of the dollar, can be raised by taxation for the erection of a school-house, unless with the special approval of the commissioner of the district, and not more than $20 can be spent in a year on repairs. So that, unless the special approval of the commissioner is pretty freely granted, it is evident that no architectural extravagances, such as have caused the waste of so much money in England that might have been spent with more advantage on the inside of the school, can be perpetrated here.

Moral training.

I have already said as much as I think it necessary to say on the subject of "discipline;" but I may be allowed to add a few remarks with respect to the "provision made for moral training," to which, in connexion with the internal organization of the schools, my instructions directed me to "pay special attention."

Provisions made for it.

Whatever may be thought of the provisions made for religious instruction, it cannot at least be said that the necessity of moral training as a part of education was overlooked by the framers of the American system of common schools.* It is regarded as "the "duty of teachers to guard the conduct of scholars, not only in the "hours of school, but at recess, and on their way to and from school, "and to extend at all times a watchful care over their morals and "manners, endeavouring to inculcate those virtues which lay a sure "foundation for future usefulness and happiness."† It is held that "moral" as well as "intellectual qualifications" constitute the "standard of admission" into schools of the higher grade;‡ and the courts have decided that "in order to maintain the purity and "discipline of the public schools, the school committee have "power to exclude therefrom a child whom they deem to be of a "licentious and immoral character, although such character is not

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happily the habit is even more prevalent in America than it is in England of defiling the walls in places of this kind with ribald verses, coarse jokes, and obscene sketches.

I would also notice that though the habit of profane swearing has grown to a terrible height in the country generally, nothing of the sort struck my ear among the children attending the schools. Possibly it is repressed by the fact of the mixture of the sexes, which, whatever may be all its effects, naturally acts as a check upon coarseness.

* By the laws of Massachusetts the teacher is required to be "of competent "ability and good morals," that he may be qualified to instruct the children not only in the ordinary branches of an English education, but in "good "behaviour." (*Revised Stat.* 23 ch. s. 1.) In another section (s. 7.) of the same chapter, "all instructors of youth" are enjoined "to exert their best "endeavours to impress on the minds of children and youth committed to "their care and instruction the principles of piety, justice, and a sacred regard "to truth, love to their country, humanity, and universal benevolence, sobriety, "industry, and frugality, chastity, moderation, and temperance, and those "other virtues which are the ornament of human society and the basis upon "which a republican constitution is founded; and it shall be the duty of such "instructors to endeavour to lead their pupils, as their age and capacities will "admit, into a clear understanding of the tendency of the above-mentioned "virtues to preserve and perfect a republican constitution, and secure the "blessings of liberty, as well as to promote their future happiness, and also to "point out to them the evil tendency of the opposite vices."

† *Acts relating to the Public Schools of Rhode Island*, p. 87.

‡ *Massachusetts, 24th Report*, p. 133.

"manifested by any acts of licentiousness or immorality within "the school."* By the Boston regulations, "when the example "of any pupil in the school is very injurious, and in all cases where "reformation appears hopeless, it is the duty of the principal "teacher, with the approbation of the committee, to suspend such "pupil from the school."† And by another regulation it is required that "good morals being of the first importance to the pupils, and "essential to their highest progress in useful knowledge, instruc- "tion therein shall be daily given in each of the schools;"‡ and the teachers themselves, "in all their intercourse with their scholars "are to strive to impress on their minds, both by precept and "example, the great importance of continued efforts for improve- "ment in morals, in manners, in deportment, as well as in useful "learning."§

Extent to which they are observed.

The extent to which these rules and requirements, than which nothing can be more admirable, are complied with, depends mainly on the personal character of, and the sense of duty entertained by, the teacher. Some teachers would be content with producing mere "deportment;"‖ others would aim a little higher, at "good

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* *Ibid.* p. 135.

† *Rules and Regulations*, ch. viii. s. 15.

‡ *Ibid.* s. 6. I have no idea, however, how this requirement is complied with, nor do I believe that it *is* literally complied with. Such "daily instruction" in morals, if attempted, would soon become a conventional and perfunctory thing.

Reading of Washington's Farewell Address.

§ *Ibid.* s. 2. With a view to impress each rising generation with the principles which animated their forefathers, "on the 21st of February annually the "masters of the high and grammar schools of Boston are to assemble their "pupils, each in the hall of his school-house, and read to them or cause to be "read to them by one or more of their own number, extracts from Washing- "ton's Farewell Address to the People of the United States, combining there- "with other patriotic exercises." (*Ibid.* ch. viii. s. 37.)

Form of New York note to parents.

‖ I have before me a printed form of weekly note which is sent by the Principal of a New York grammar school to the parents of his boys. It is the highest mark of approval given. "Sir,—It becomes my pleasant duty to "inform you that your son *A.B.* has merited the approbation of his teachers. "During the past week he has recited correctly all his lessons, has been "punctual in attendance, and *gentlemanly in deportment*.—I am, &c." And the phrasing of the monthly record is similar, the heading being "*deportment* "during the month" not "*conduct*." Among some directions and suggestions contained in the Annual Report of the St. Louis Public Schools for 1864, I observe this, "An occasional well-timed story or anecdote, embodying a lesson "in morals or manners, read by the teacher, may have the happiest effect. "Proper instruction should be given to children as to their *manner* of going "into houses, offices, and other places on errands. The need of this instruc- "tion is frequently observable in those visiting the offices of the School "Board." (p. 70.)

The Rhode Island Commissioner, as usual with him, takes higher ground. "The standard of *moral* instruction needs to be carried very much higher in "nearly all our schools. *Christian morality*"—(the italics are not mine)— "should be made a distinct and daily study . . We need such an education for "youth as will make it more than *possible* that they will do justly and love "mercy, an education that will furnish them with faith in God and man, that "will secure a manly frankness and boldness in establishing truth and "opposing whatever is false, which will teach the mastery over passion, the "patience of self-control, the generosity of forgiveness, the safety of self- "reliance, the cheerfulness of a fervent spirit, reverence for what is sacred,

manners;" a few would really be dissatisfied with themselves if they did not feel that the "morals" of their school were high and pure. It must be admitted that the more perfect the grading of a school, the greater difficulty is thrown in the way of moral training, from the fact that the individual boy or girl is merged and (so to speak) obliterated in the mass.* Different plans are adopted by different teachers to produce a healthy moral atmosphere in their schools. Some appear to be content with that fragmentary reading of a passage of Scripture which is the ordinary, though not the universal, prelude in American schools to the work of the day.† Others think that the mere placing of a child for six hours a day under the discipline and order that are maintained in a good school must exercise a powerful, though imperceptible, moral influence.‡ Others have tried the plan of self-reporting, or mutual reporting.§ Others resort to weekly or

Different expedients.

"the binding power of an oath, courtesy which is better than grace, gentleness "which is more winning than beauty, and that courage which casteth out the "cowardice of doing wrong; an education which shall enhance the value of "everything but evil deeds, penitentiaries, and sheriff's fees." (*19th Report*, pp. 27, 28.)

Extent to which individual character is known.

* Mr. Gardner, the master of the Boston Latin School, told me that he thought he knew the character of his boys (to use his own expression) "right through." As far as a morning visitor has a right to judge, there was a healthy honest air in that school which pleased me much. The straightforward manner of the master seemed to have transfused itself into the boys. Some New York masters whom I asked the question said they believed they knew pretty correctly the temper and character of the majority of their boys. I seemed to gather from the general testimony which was offered me on all sides that the prevailing vice of American school-boys is untruthfulness, in one or other of its manifold forms. The Superintendent of Schools at New Bedford, Mass., speaks of "the frequency with which the most flagrant disregard of "truthfulness is brought to his notice in cases of discipline referred to him, "and in various ways;" and expresses "the conviction painfully forced upon "him that the cause of good morals in the youth of the city is not keeping "pace with the efforts to promote their intellectual progress." (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 198.)

Influence of Scripture-reading inadequate.

† "The simple reading of Scripture does but little to accomplish this"—(the impression on children's minds of the moral principles required by the statutes). "Dispensing with all doctrinal teaching, which is improper and "illegal, our children should be trained, in each and every department of our "schools, to have a proper sense of their moral obligations." (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 71.)

Influence of daily discipline.

‡ "Any close observer will perceive that in placing a child under daily "instruction and discipline in the school-room, to be governed, and drilled, and "plied with motives, and taught self-control, and punished for wrong-doing, "and rewarded for good behaviour, a moral force of unmeasured extent is "continually and silently brought to bear. Thus the school becomes to the "State a vast insurance office, to guarantee that its inmates shall be found, in "the coming years, among the sober, industrial ranks of the community, and "not in her almshouses and gaols." (*Ibid.* p. 88.)

System of self-reporting.

§ "The plan of making children reporters of their own misdeeds should be carefully considered. Our opinion, founded upon even a casual observation, is that the system is bad. Punishment is easily escaped by falsehood, and with younger children the tendency to such is inevitable. Unless coupled with a high sense of honour, hardly to be expected in the lower departments, teachers had better depend upon their own observation." (*Ibid.* p. 71.)

"Some years ago," says Mrs. Stone, one of the ablest of the Ohio teachers, in an essay on school government read before the Teachers' Association at Cincinnati, "I had charge of the boys in a grammar school. One day some

monthly reports to parents, which they require to be brought back to them with the parent's signature, shewing that they have been received and read.* Others employ "certificates," "medals," "rolls of honour," stimulating the desire

ἀιὲν ἀριστεύειν καὶ ὑπείροχον ἔμμεναι ἄλλων.†

Indeed, the appeal to honour, to ambition, to proper pride and a sense of shame—the "shame that bringeth glory and grace"‡—appears to be the means most commonly employed, and these to be the motives most largely trusted, to plant in a child's mind the seeds of virtue, and quicken it to a sense of duty.§ It is felt,

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Example of its working.

"acorns were thrown violently across the room. The room was large and "the pupils numerous, and as the acorns was thrown from under the desks, I "was unable to detect the author of the mischief. The next morning the "offence was repeated. I inquired who did it. No one could tell. I said, "'We will have no recess in this room until I have been informed who threw "'the acorns. The author of the mischief must be a great coward, and shows "'a very mean spirit, if he will keep all these boys in, rather than report him-"'self and bear the punishment alone.' The first recess time passed off "quietly. At the next, occasional threatening glances directed towards "Jacob, the largest boy in the school, showed who was the offender. At the "third recess, the angry glances were attended with the quick, oblique motion "of the head with which boys emphasize threats. By the time of the fourth "recess the indignation of the boys was raised to such a height that the "offender evidently thought it safest to confess before the school closed. He "arose, pale and trembling, and acknowledged his guilt. The rest of the boys "were excused to take recess, and no more acorns were thrown during the "session" (*Ohio Monthly for Sept.* 1865, p. 297). It was the use of the motive that is so much relied upon at Mettray—the fear of being considered "lâche,"—perhaps a lower motive still, the fear of becoming an object of the vengeance of his schoolfellows—a dangerous instrument to use, except by the very skilfullest hands.

* This is an almost universal practice in the largest and best schools. For a specimen, *see above*, p. 232, *note* 6.

Medals. Certificates.

† In awarding the medals and certificates annually distributed in the schools at Boston (about which see above, p. 121) it is expressly required in the regulations that "general scholarship, and, more especially, *good conduct* shall be "taken into consideration" (*Regulations*, ch. iv. p. 17).

Roll of merit.

In New York there has been recently introduced a system of certificates, which is said to have largely improved attendance, and may have improved morality. We have seen (above, p. 134) that a "roll of merit," "including "examinations *and conduct*," is part of the system of the Free Academy. A copy of this roll is sent to every parent or guardian.

Legion of honour.

Mr. Hancock of Cincinnati, in a paper read to the Teachers' Association, recommends to teachers the formation of a "legion of honour in every school; that no one's name be placed on the roll whose conduct is not exemplary, out of school as well as in; that in every place where school reports are published such pupils should receive honorable mention; and that every member be permitted to wear some modest badge indicative of his high position." The proposal was discussed, but did not carry with it the unanimous consent of the Association.—(*Ohio Monthly, Sept.* 1865, pp. 321, 255.)

‡ *Ecclus.* iv. 21.

Appeals to sense of honour.

§ Thus Mr. Hancock: "Every teacher who has in himself any seeds of true "nobility of character—and without this he can do nothing—if he keep this cul-"tivation of a high sense of honour steadily in view, and bring all his resources to "bear upon it, cannot fail to find the tone of his school gradually coming up to "a high level. I am not to be understood as setting up this sense of honour as "the end of moral education—by no means. It is but the beginning—a noble "beginning, I believe, which in the end is to flower and bear fruit in a perfect "obedience to law, in the restraint of the passions, and the unfolding of the "beautiful characteristics of a Christian life."—(*Ohio Monthly*, p. 320.)

however, that something is wanting still. The question is raised whether morality, apart from religion, can be taught at all; or, if taught, whether it be worth the learning.* The seeds of morality can only be expected to germinate, many are beginning to think, under the influence of the sun of gospel righteousness, without which even a Socrates can only produce an Alcibiades. But no sooner does the thought take definite shape than, looming in the distance, is beheld the terrible phantom of "sectarianism;"† and the desire of many hearts remains an aspiration only; and the greatest of all moral *motives*—the sense of accountability to God;‡ the greatest of all moral *facts*—that sin need not have dominion over those who are not under the law, but under grace—are scarcely more than timidly whispered in the schools.

Political element in American education.

Ethics, in the system of Aristotle, was but the vestibule of politics; and certainly a specialty in the school system of America, and a very valuable specialty, is the connexion which it is desired

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Morality without Christianity.

* "But, fellow-citizens, as you are well aware, morality not founded on Christian principle is like a baseless fabric—a castle in the air—is limited in its range of duties, and of short duration. Genuine virtue is the offspring of Deity. The code of morals found in the Bible is the unerring standard of right and wrong. A solemn reverence for Holy Scriptures, and a full acknowledgment of our obligation to be governed by them, are indispensable elements in the moral training of our youth and of all mankind" (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 96).

Dread of sectarianism.

† "To avoid 'sectarianism' have we not well nigh ruled all religion out of our schools?" (*Ibid.* p. 95.) "Should not the teacher teach the great principles of public and private virtue and morality, which are common to all religious sects? Some may object to this branch of education, and denominate it 'sectarianism.' We are no advocates for the introduction of any sectarianism into the course of instruction given in our common schools. But is it sectarian to teach children to be good and kind and affectionate, to instruct them in the principles of justice and truth and honesty, to teach them to obey their parents, to obey the laws of the land and the laws of God, to endeavour to impress upon them the importance of reverencing God's name, of loving Him with all their heart, and their neighbours as themselves? We think not. But if we would have our children become virtuous and useful members of society, we think we should desire to have this kind of instruction given in our common schools" (*Ibid.* p. 151).

‡ "It is said that Mr. Webster was once asked, What is the greatest thought that ever occupied your mind? After a solemn pause, he replied, The greatest thought I ever had, or can have, is the sense of my accountability to God" (*Ibid.* p. 96).

Daniel Webster's view of the policy of public schools.

Daniel Webster's words are, as they deserve to be, weighty with his countrymen. In a speech delivered at Plymouth Landing in 1822, he thus describes the aims and aspects of the policy of free public schools:—"We regard it as a "wise and liberal system of police, by which property and life and the peace "of society are secured. We seek to prevent, in some measure, the extension "of the penal code, by inspiring a salutary and conservative principle of virtue "and of knowledge in an early age. We hope to excite a feeling of respecta- "bility, and a sense of character, by enlarging the capacity and increasing the "sphere of intellectual enjoyment. By general instruction we seek, as far as "possible, to purify the whole moral atmosphere, to keep good sentiments "uppermost, and to turn the strong current of feeling and opinion, as well as "the censures of the law and the denunciations of religion, against immorality "and crime. We hope for a security beyond the law and above the law, in "the prevalence of enlightened and well-principled moral sentiment. We "hope to continue and prolong the time when, in the villages and farmhouses "of New England, there may be undisturbed sleep within unbarred doors" (*Quoted in 19th Rhode Island Report*, p. 12).

to establish in the schools between moral and political training.* The object to be attained is the production, not so much of the good man, as of the good citizen. Every American citizen has to play a part in the great arena of public life, which in other countries is reserved for the governing class or classes.† If there had been a free-school system in the South there would have been no secession, no civil war.‡ Hence the need and demand for a thorough political education.§ Hence the extent to which the study of the Constitution of the United States pervades the programme of all the schools.‖ Hence the continual appeals to support the

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* "The prime importance of moral instruction all will admit. But this branch has heretofore been confined principally to the Sabbath school, and other Sabbath-day and home instruction. I think, however, that it could be introduced as a study into our common schools, and pursued with as much, if not more, profit than any other study. It is not proposed to introduce the peculiar dogmas or tenets of any sect, but to educate and enlighten the conscience and inculcate the great and universally admitted principles of justice and right. Too little attention, also, is paid to the subject of civil government, many of the teachers being deficient in a knowledge of its first principles. Would it not be well, then, to make morals and civil government prominent themes in our Teachers' Institutes" (*New York 11th Report*, p. 229). Union of moral and political teaching.

† "A practical education for a Hindoo Sudra, an English factory operative "or miner, a Russian serf, or a Mexican peon"—the collocation is not very complimentary, but the English operative or miner will have too much sense to feel himself affronted by it—"is not that which an American citizen should "receive. *They* have nothing to do with the affairs of Government. The "State neither needs their counsel nor asks their advice. It requires them "to be industrious, quiet, content. The warp and woof of our entire system of "government is spun and woven by the citizen. From him all power "emanates, for he is the fountain-head of sovereignty. To him all questions "of right and policy must ultimately be referred, and from his decision there "is no appeal. What problems are there for him to solve during the next "fifty years! What blessings or curses are to be handed down by him to all "coming generations! Standing, as he does, in the front rank of progress, at "this critical moment in the world's history, what hopes and fears cluster "round him, and what a sacredness should surround the ballot-box, which "emits his voice of destiny. Such an education as shall fit him for all the "duties and responsibilities of his peculiar position can alone be called "practical" (*Inaugural Address of the President to the Ohio State Teachers' Association, Ohio Monthly, Sept.* 1865, p. 255). Education required by an American citizen.

‡ "It is a suggestive fact that wherever these schools have been established and maintained, there treason against the government has found no favour with the people" (*St. Louis Report for* 1864, p. 61). Anti-secessionist influence of public schools.

§ Again is quoted the counsel of Daniel Webster: "On the diffusion of "education among the people rest the preservation and perpetuation of our "free institutions. I apprehend no danger to our country from a foreign foe. "The prospect of a war with any powerful nation is too remote to be a matter "of calculation. Besides there is no nation on earth powerful enough to ac-"complish our overthrow. Our destruction, should it come at all, will be "from another quarter. From the inattention of the people to the concerns "of the government, from their carelessness and negligence, I confess I do "apprehend some danger. I fear that they may place too implicit confidence "in their public servants, and fail properly to scrutinise their conduct, that in "this way they may be the dupes of designing men, and become the instru-"ments of their own undoing. Make them intelligent, and they will be "vigilant; give them the means of detecting the wrong, and they will apply "the remedy" (*Ibid.* p. 62). Mr. Webster on the need of political education.

‖ "We would recommend that the Constitution of the United States, or the Declaration of Independence, be introduced into our schools and used as a Study of the Constitution recommended.

system on national and patriotic, even more than on social and domestic, grounds.* And the result certainly is very remarkable. The political intelligence of the people is extraordinary. Compare the political knowledge and the mental activity displayed on political questions of a New England farmer or mechanic with that possessed and exhibited by an Englishman of similar social position, and the contrast would be ludicrous. I was told that in the eastern states I might meet with farmers driving their own plough who would be delighted to stop their oxen and discuss a problem in differential calculus. I suspect, if they stopped their oxen for a discussion at all, they would prefer that it should take the direction of politics rather than of the higher mathematics, and would sooner have their mind occupied with concrete questions of domestic or foreign politics than with algebraic formulæ and abstract magnitudes. At any rate, it is thought on all hands to be advisable that boys should be taught at school the principles of the Constitution under which they live, and what will be expected from them, not only as members of society, but as constituents of a nation.†

Religious instruction.

For "religious instruction," in the sense which we in England attach to the words, it cannot be said that any provision at all is made under the American school system. Anything like "sectarian," which, as it is interpreted, means anything like doctrinal or dogmatic teaching, anything of the nature of a creed, or which requires children to utter the phrase "I believe," is implicitly forbidden in all the schools; in some states it is forbidden in terms.‡ It is true that everywhere, at least I *believe*

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reading lesson as often as once a week. It seems to us this would be a very proper exercise in these days of rebellion. It would be the means of bringing up the rising generation with proper views of republican institutions, and cause them to place a just value upon the blessings of civil and religious liberty" (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 109).

Appeal to patriotism.

* "To sustain our public schools with a liberal hand, and to watch over them with an ever-wakeful vigilance, is to subserve most surely and extensively the future well-being of the country, which we are so lavishly pouring out blood and treasure to save from threatened destruction" (*Ibid.* p. 89. See also p. 56).

Duties of a citizen are primary.

† "A man is a man, a citizen and a member of society, before he is a farmer, a minister, or a mechanic. At the same time, therefore, that he is pursuing his calling in the effort to get a living, and add to the general prosperity in material things, let him also discharge to the extent he may be able those duties he owes to his neighbour, to the township he lives in, and the country of which he is a part. There is but one other way in which a man can do so much for his kind as by the effort to make our common schools what they should be, for next to religion our country depends on them for its true national greatness" (*Ibid.* p. 144).

Provisions against sectarianism.

‡ "The school committee shall require the daily reading of some portion of "the Bible in the common English version, but shall never direct any school "books calculated to favour the tenets of any particular sect of Christians to "be purchased or used in any of the township schools" (*Massachusetts School Law*, ch. 38, s. 27). The Act of 1642 provided that "religious instruction "should be given to all children" (*Horace Mann's 10th Report*, p. 9), but this Act, if not actually repealed, has yet been emptied of all significance by the progress of events and the disintegration of religious belief. It is found to be impossible to give "religious instruction" without favouring "the tenets of

everywhere under the system, provision is made for reading the Bible; and almost everywhere provision is made for opening the work of the day with prayer.* But the disjointed, inconsecutive

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"some particular sect of Christians," that is, without doing a forbidden thing.

In the city of New York the provisions of law are as follows: "No school "shall be entitled to, or receive, any portion of the school moneys in which the "religious doctrines or tenets of any particular Christian or other religious sect "shall be taught, inculcated, or practised, or in which any book or books con- "taining compositions favourable or prejudicial to the particular doctrines or "tenets of any particular Christian or other religious sect are used. But nothing "herein contained shall authorize the Board of Education to exclude the Holy "Scriptures, without note or comment, or any selections therefrom, from any of "the schools; but it shall not be competent for the said Board of Education to "decide what version, if any, of the Holy Scriptures shall be used: provided "that nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to violate the rights "of conscience, as secured by the constitution of this State and of the United "States" (*New York Manual*, s. 18, p. 47).

In Ohio, I was informed by the State Commissioner, there is no special enactment of law prohibiting teachers from giving what religious instruction they please, provided it be not of a "sectarian character." If it were thought to favour the tenets of any particular religious body, the Board of Education probably would interfere. But, he added, there is very little Biblical teaching in the schools.

I have previously quoted the words of a Massachusetts School Committee, who, though they want something more than "simple reading of the Scrip- "tures," admit that "all doctrinal teaching is improper and illegal," and must be "dispensed with" (*Above*, p. 156, note †).

* At Boston the rule is: "The morning exercises of all the schools shall "commence with the reading of a portion of the Scriptures by the teacher in "each school; the reading to be followed by the Lord's Prayer, repeated by the "teacher alone" (*Regulations*, ch. viii. s. 5). At New York, "all the public "schools of the city under the jurisdiction of the Board of Education shall be "opened by the reading of a portion of the Holy Scriptures, without note or "comment" (*New York Manual*, p. 93). At Philadelphia, "at the opening of "each session of the schools, at least ten verses of the Bible, without note or "comment, shall be read to the pupils by the principal, or, in his or her "absence, by one of the assistants, and some suitable hymn may be sung" (*Rule* xxv). At Chicago, "the morning exercises of each department of the "several schools shall commence with reading the Scriptures, without note "or comment, and that exercise may be followed by repeating the Lord's "Prayer, and by appropriate singing" (*Rule*, s. 46). At Cincinnati, "the "pupils of the common schools are allowed to read such version of the Holy "Scriptures as their parents or guardians may prefer; but no notes or marginal "readings may be read in the school, nor comments made by the teacher on "the text of any version that is or may be introduced" (28*th Report*, p. 92). Rules about prayer.

I heard (as already alluded to) an extempore prayer used by the Principal, devout, earnest, evangelical, at the opening of the High School at Newhaven; and the Te Deum chanted, more, however, as a specimen of their vocal culture than of anything else, in a coloured school at New York. A County Superintendent in Pennsylvania "makes special mention, as of an important fact, that "in many schools the Lord's Prayer and the Apostles' Creed are frequently and "devoutly recited in concert by all the pupils. They read the Scriptures alter- "nately" (*Report for* 1864, p. 68). Things seem to be very unequal in Pennsylvania. As a specimen, in one county "the Scriptures are read regu- "larly and used for the purpose of moral instruction in 401 schools, 120 are "opened with reading the Scriptures and prayer, and in 17 moral instruction "is given orally. There are but six schools where no moral instruction is "given" (*Ibid.* p. 55). In another county, "in 10 schools moral instruction is "imparted by the reading of the Scriptures every morning, and by prayer; in "72 others the Scriptures are occasionally read either by teachers or pupils;

way in which the Bible is read—to-day a psalm, to-morrow a section from a gospel, the day after a paragraph from one of the letters of St. Paul—in all cases unaccompanied by a single word in the shape of note, explanation, or comment, cannot and does not amount to anything that can be called systematic religious instruction. Indeed, considerable anxiety is being awakened in the minds of many thoughtful men, earnest and eager supporters of the system of common schools, by the fact that a very large proportion of the rising generation are growing up and going forth into life without any methodical knowledge of the Bible at all.* In a passage in an essay which has become only too well known, in the sense of having been made the peg on which to hang much bitter controversy, it is asserted that the Bible must be interpreted like any other book. Whether the statement be true or not, and in a certain sense I consider that it is perfectly true, it is quite clear that, in a certain sense also, if the Bible is to be understood and made available for practical purposes, it must be *studied* like any other book. If the Bible be, as I believe it to be, in any sense a whole, with an organic structure and interdependence of parts, and a spiritual sequence and development of ideas, it cannot exhibit this character of itself, so necessary for a just estimate and interpretation of its contents, to the student who has no other knowledge of it but what he picks up piecemeal. I know that

Anxiety felt on this subject.

The Bible needs study.

" and in 75 no moral instruction of any kind is given" (*Ibid.* p. 51). The " without note or comment " rule is not enforced in Pennsylvania. Occasionally, " the teacher asks some simple questions, or makes some appropriate " remarks, to impress the lesson read more deeply on the mind " (*Ibid.* p. 212). In some schools " religious lectures are given " (*Ibid.* p. 186), but as to what would be their character, or what they would amount to, I have no definite idea.

Illustration of a feeling that is widely spread.

* I do not think that I have a right to mention the names of gentlemen who thus expressed their feelings to me in the confidence of private conversation, though theirs are names which, if mentioned, would carry great weight with them. But at least I may be permitted to quote sentiments to the same effect that have already appeared in print. " The importance," says a Pennsylvanian school inspector, " if not the absolute necessity, of a system of religious training " in our public schools becomes every year more apparent, and there is no " greater perversion of the letter and spirit of the law than to say that such is " not contemplated because sectarian teaching is excluded. This is a subter- " fuge under which teachers and school officers often seek to hide the respon- " sibility resting upon them, and thus secure to themselves a pretext for " neglecting this important duty. The clashing of different religious creeds " and the risk of sectarian dissension are far less to be feared than the absence " of all religious instruction. The truth will always stand the test of discussion, " and has nothing to fear from it; it is false delicacy alone which seeks to avoid " this imaginary evil by encouraging one that is real. If there ever was a time " when such training was imperatively demanded it is now, when the heavy " hand of an afflicting Providence is on us as a nation, and when we are " passing through a much-needed discipline on account of neglecting this " duty. It is not only important but essential, in order to the sustaining and " perpetuation of our civil and religious institutions, that the tone of manhood " and standard of Christian character should be elevated, and that the genera- " tion soon to take our place should not only be strong-hearted, quick-handed, " and clear-headed, but that they should be taught to love their God and their " fellow men, as well as to love their country and understand its institutions, " and their duty as citizens of this great and growing commonwealth " *Pennsylvania Report for* 1864, p. 137).

many of the warmest friends of the American public schools would gladly see imported into the system some means of communicating to the pupils more of definite religious knowledge, if only it could be done without compromising or infringing upon that principle of entire religious freedom which is one of the corner-stones of all American institutions. I am afraid till men's minds and tempers are cast in a new mould it cannot be done; and if perfect religious freedom is a blessing, which I willingly admit it to be, it must be accepted, like many other principles, with its inseparable drawbacks and disadvantages. For us in England it has produced the acknowledged inconveniences, largely qualifying the otherwise beneficial action, of the denominational system; in America the result has been what its enemies call a "godless" education, and what even its friends allow does not include within its scope the highest objects that can occupy the thoughts or touch the heart of man.

Difficulty of securing this in the public schools.

From this circumstance, however, that the public schools, as a whole, are divested of a distinctly religious charcter, and practically give nothing but secular instruction to their pupils, arises a state of public feeling towards them which, if not yet predominant, is, I think, steadily growing; which in some individual minds is very strong, and even pervades whole sections of the community; and which, perhaps, more than any other adverse influence, seems likely to threaten the permanence and stability of the system, or at least of the system as now administered, in the future. Hence the lukewarm support given to the system, sometimes the open opposition avowed to it by the great, compact, and powerful Roman Catholic community, and especially by the Roman Catholic hierarchy.* Hence the attitude of indifference, if not of more than

Hence alienation of many from the system.

* The admitted aim of Roman Catholics is to have "separate schools." In some places they have been too eager, and, anticipating public opinion, have ended only in placing a serious obstacle in their own way. In Ohio, about 15 years ago, they attempted to get a share of the School Fund appropriated separately, but without success; and a law was passed in consequence, that no religious sect should ever be allowed a share in the State Fund for a separate school, and this law it would require a three-fourths vote of the whole State to repeal. In this State I was informed that nine-tenths of the Roman Catholic children are in separate schools, under the control of their own priests, and supported, of course, out of their own resources. In Cincinnati I was given to understand that there were 8,000 children in the Roman Catholic separate schools, as against about 16,000 in the public schools. Bishop Duggan, of Chicago—a man, I should say, without a tinge of bigotry—told me that he did not dissuade children from attending the public schools, because he had nothing better to offer them; but that, if he could see his way to the successful establishment of separate schools, he should certainly feel it his duty to throw all his influence in their favour. I was told, upon what seemed to me the best authority, that in some parts of Illinois, where the inhabitants are almost exclusively Roman Catholics, Roman Catholic trustees appoint Roman Catholic teachers to the public schools, and that definite religious instruction in the articles of the Roman Catholic faith is given by them. In Connecticut also I was informed, upon equally reliable authority, there are certain localities—New Britain, Waterbury, and Hartford were mentioned—in which there are school buildings erected by the Roman Catholics, which they loan to the State, and which come under the control of the township School Committee, as far as examining the teacher is concerned, but in which religious instruction is given to

Roman Catholic aims and efforts.

indifference, taken up towards it by nearly the whole body of the clergy of all denominations.* Hence the growing preference

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the children by the priest, the school taking its share of the general and local appropriations. In Newhaven I visited two Roman Catholic separate schools, one for boys, taught by a single master, the other for girls, taught by Sisters. They were flourishing as far as regards number of scholars, and though the building in which they were held was not in first-rate order, the instruction given seemed to be sound and practical, and a nice (though in the case of the girls a rather sombre) tone pervaded the schools.

The following picture of the efforts and views of the Roman Catholics in America in the matter of education is painted by one whose opinion is that "Roman Catholicism bids fair to be the dominant faith over the whole "American continent" (*Nichol's Forty Years in America*, vol. i. 337). "In "1861," he says, "there were 96 academies and colleges for young men, and "212 female seminaries, besides a vast number of primary schools established "by Catholics for the education of their own children, while they are also "obliged to contribute to the taxes for the support of the common schools of "the country. This heavy burden will be borne, however, only until the "Catholics in any State have numbers and political power sufficient to compel "a division of the School Fund, and the devotion of a fair proportion to their "separate use; and this day, in several States, cannot be far distant, and is "looked forward to with dread by many Protestant Americans" (*Ibid.* ii. 84). "There are Jesuit colleges in New York, Massachusetts, Baltimore, Washing-"ton, Cincinnati, St. Louis, New Orleans, and Mobile; and the reputation of "this order for thoroughness of education has caused large numbers of the "Southern youth to be entrusted to its care; and whatever may be the "demerits of its members, they seldom fail to gain the love and confidence of "their pupils who, as the Southerners say, can read their diplomas" (*Ibid.* ii. 86). In illustration of this writer's expectation of the future predominance of Roman Catholicism in America, it may be remembered that De Tocqueville prophesies that the state of religious belief two generations hence—it may almost be said *now*, *one* generation hence, for it is 30 years since he wrote the words—will be "que nos neveux tendront de plus en plus à ne se diviser qu'en "deux parts, les uns sortant entièrement du Christianisme, et les autres entrant "dans le sein de l'église romaine" (*Democratie en Amérique*, ii. 31).

Attitude of the clergy generally.

* The law of Massachusetts declares that it is "the duty of the resident "ministers of the gospel (*inter alios*) to exert their influence and use their best "endeavours that the youth of their townships shall regularly attend the "schools established for their instruction;" and Mr. Boutwell's comment on the law in 1861 was, that "in nearly every township clergymen are members of "the committees and participate in the management of the schools, and that, "whether so entrusted or not, they are always willing to devote their time and "talents for their welfare" (*Massach., 24th Report*, p. 95–6).

Regrets at the absence of the clergy from the schools.

But a very different story is told elsewhere. In Connecticut there are frequent and loud complaints that "men of influence, position, and wealth"—and the description must certainly include the clergy—do not give their support to the school; and that "the great want of the schools is interest on the part of the "community, particularly the more influential part" (*Report for* 1865, pp. 52, 63). In Ohio the Commissioner regrets that "the teachers struggle on alone, "cut off from all external aid and sympathy; no friendly counsel or instruc-"tion, no kind admonition or direction, comes to them with assistance or "encouragement" (11*th Report*, p. 35). In Pennsylvania, the language of the Superintendent is still more distinct. "In days not long gone by it was the "custom for clergymen to feel a deep interest in the cause of popular education, "and exhibit that interest by frequent visits to the schools where the youth of "their congregations are to receive their education. Their visits did much "good, afforded aid and encouragement to teachers, stimulated pupils and gave "them confidence in their schools, and influenced parents to take a more lively "interest in the matter. Of late this habit has fallen into disuse, to a great ex-"tent. Ministers now seldom visit the schools; consequently, all the good they "might accomplish is lost, all the influence they might exert in favour of moral

which is observed in some places for "parochial schools," that is, schools connected with particular religious congregations or societies.* Those who, with De Tocqueville, believe that the "spirit "of religion" is one of the foundation stones of American institutions,† will readily believe also that a school system which appears to exclude this spirit in its attempt to educate youthful minds, *must* be unacceptable to those who are themselves penetrated by it and have faith in its potency.

Mixture of denominations in the schools.

There appears to be no difficulty experienced in assembling children of all denominations in the same schoolroom; though, here again, as before noticed in regard to social status, a sort of attraction by affinity seems to prevail, and you find in one school quite a cluster of Jews,‡ another almost possessed by Roman Catholics. This is particularly observable in New York, where some quarters of the city are almost exclusively occupied by an Irish population. The effect in some schools has been rather curious. Under the influence of Roman Catholic trustees, there has not been any introduction of Roman Catholic teaching, but there has been an exclusion of the Bible. It is strange that, with the possibilities of religious influences reduced to a *minimum*, the spirit of religious zeal (if it be zeal), or of religous intolerance (if it be intolerance), should fasten upon that *minimum*. The question is not, as with us, whether a catechism shall be taught, or whether the formularies of a particular church shall be taught, but whether the "authorized" or the "Douay" version of the Bible shall be used, and whether the verses shall be read wholly by the teacher, or one after another by the scholars, or by

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"culture is so much taken away from the institutions where the youth are to "be prepared for their duties and responsibilities in subsequent life. . . . The "influence of so large a class of educated men thus exerted in favour of the "public schools would be a power for good, the value of which can hardly be "estimated. It is earnestly desired that clergymen would take this matter "into careful consideration, and seriously ask themselves whether there cannot "be a healthful moral influence exerted over the children while in school, that "shall guard them against the vices to which they are exposed, that cannot be "exerted at any other time. We do not mean sectarian religious instruction, "but instruction upon those plain principles of morality upon which all agree. "The mere presence of these men at the schools would do good, if they did "not utter a word. An educated Christian gentleman carries with him a "power that will be felt by all who come within the sphere of his influence, "and by none more than by the young" (*Report for* 1864, p. 39). A similar indifference on the part of the clergy (as a body) towards the schools prevails in Canada, at least in Upper Canada.

Preference for parochial schools.

* "It is claimed by many that there is a lack of moral culture in the public-school system; that the training of our children is often committed to the oversight of immoral persons. This conviction is strengthening the feeling for parochial schools wherever they can be established, and the consequent withdrawal of many children from the public schools" (*Pennsylvania Report*, 1864, p. 82).

† *See above*, p. 14, note *.

Jews in a New York school.

‡ In one New York grammar school which I visited, containing about 800 boys, I was told by the Principal that there were about a hundred sons of wealthy Jews, who made no objection to the reading even of the New Testament. I should not regard this fact myself as a sign of "enlightened tolerance," but merely a mechanical acquiescence in what they probably deem a harmless and prescribed conventionalism.

teacher and scholars alternately. The omission to open school with the reading of Scripture is contrary to the regulations of the Board of Education, but it is winked at, and is considered as a concession to a powerful party which it is thought better to make than to run the risk of a disturbance. Cases of intractableness occasionally arise, in which an individual child, acting probably under the orders of his parents, refuses to take his turn in "reading "Scripture round," or to conform in some other way to the pattern followed in the school; and these cases, like other instances of disobedience or indiscipline, produce momentary difficulty and have to be delicately handled;* but they are not numerous nor very serious in their effects.

Results of this association.

As to the results of the association of children of different religious beliefs in the same school, I do not feel justified in pronouncing a very strong or very definite opinion. With every approach so carefully barred against sectarianism, and the whole religious teaching (such as it is) being of so absolutely neutral a tint, there is no room or pretext for quarrelling, nothing that can generate *odium theologicum*. It may result, and I think it does result, in indifferentism, in a depreciation of the value of a creed and fixed forms of faith, and in a more thorough acceptance than elsewhere of the half-truth that "He can't be wrong whose life "is in the right." It struck me very forcibly—I had almost said painfully—in America how little identity in religious feelings or unanimity in religious habits or opinions appears to be estimated as a constituent of domestic happiness. In no place have I ever seen the principle of "agreeing to differ" in matters of religion so thoroughly woven into the tissue of society. It is not at all unusual to find two or three faiths in one family, and husband and wife and children separating on the Sabbath (as the Lord's day is always called), to worship with different congregations.†

"Touchiness" of parents.

* It is surprising how delicate the handling of parents sometimes is required to be. A teacher in a school at Providence, to stimulate his class, happened to say that they could not spell so well as the negro children in a certain primary school. A parent, whose daughter was a member of the class, demanded the dismissal of the teacher (no doubt on the *real* ground that he had insulted his scholars by such a comparison, but) on the *nominal* ground that he had spoken an untruth. The case had to be met by the teacher taking his class with him to the coloured school, and testing the spelling powers of the negro children by fifty of the hardest words he could find! . . . The spelling in the coloured schools of Providence has almost passed into a proverb for its excellence. Mr. Northrop speaks of "the unrivalled spelling of Providence" in his *Lecture on "Supervision of Schools."* p. 5.

Chapel service at West Point.

† The scene on Sunday in the chapel of the Military Academy at West Point was striking, and to me suggestive. The cadets there, of course, represented all sorts of religious denominations; but, as a matter of discipline, they are required to attend the chapel service on Sunday morning. This service is conducted according to the way of thinking of the chaplain at the time. It has been Presbyterian; it is now, under the present excellent chaplain, Episcopalian in its arrangements. Every degree of conformity and nonconformity was exhibited by the cadets, for though obliged to attend, and obliged to behave with decent seriousness, conscientious scruples have to be considered, and they are not obliged to conform. The effect was better than I

Attempt to estimate the system as a whole.

I have now travelled, I hope with sufficient fulness to be complete, sufficient coherence to be understood, and sufficient accuracy to be trusted, over the wide field of phenomena which the American system of common schools exhibited to my eye. It is time to gather up the loose threads of the discourse into a few definite conclusions, briefly to state what struck me as being the system's most prominent results, and to take my leave of it with a few critical notices of a general kind.

Its correspondence with the phenomena of American life.

In endeavouring to comprehend and appreciate this system of common or public schools—for the two epithets are used indifferently—it is absolutely necessary that the European observer should throw his mind, if possible, into the conditions of American life, should take his point of departure from a few leading social principles, and keep constantly before his eye certain salient social phenomena, which have (so to speak) necessitated its form, give to it its significance, underlie its action, maintain its motive power, determine its methods, and fix its aims. The *principles* have been already referred to ;* they are the principles of perfect social equality and absolute religious freedom.† The *phenomena* are the restlessness and activity of the American character,—without, perhaps, the culture and refinement of the old Athenian, but with all his versatility,‡—the absorbing interest of political life; the constantly rising aims of each individual; the ebb and flow of commercial enterprise, and the immense development of the spirit of speculation; the intense energy of the national temperament, its rapidity of movement, its precipitancy, its impatience of standing still. Many an American in the course of

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dared expect under such circumstances, for I noticed no irreverence. Yet to my mind, to which a hearty, uniform religious service is a comfort, such a state of things could not but be unsatisfactory; and I conld not help sighing as I thought that this was the state to which, perhaps, college worship might come at home. I would not be understood as casting the slightest reflection on the West Point system. Under such circumstances what more could be done? The religious service is left to approve itself to the hearts of those who attend it by its own power. That it should not thoroughly so approve iteelf to 500 young men, four-fifths of whom have been bred up in ignorance of it, or with prejudices against it, is not surprising; and, besides, the very constitution of the congregation deprives the service of at least half its power.

* *Above*, p. 14.

First principles of American society, and civil polity.

† "We hold these truths to be self-evident—that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."—*Declaration of Independence, sub initio.* By the Constitution "titles of nobility" are forbidden, and no law is to be made "respecting an establishment of religion, or pro-" hibiting the free exercise thereof" *Act* i, ss. 9. 7; *Amendments Act*, 1. The school law of Rhode Island throws off, as its basis, with an extract from the Constitution of the State, declaring liberty of conscience in matters of religion, and the duty of the State "to secure to the people the advantages and oppor-" tunities of education," as "essential to the preservation of their rights and " liberties."

Resemblance of an American to an Athenian.

‡ "ξυνελών τε λέγω . . . καθ' ἕκαστον δοκεῖν ἂν μοι τὸν αὐτὸν ἄνδρα παρ' ἡμῶν ἐπὶ πλεῖστ' ἂν εἰδη καὶ μετὰ χαρίτων μάλιστ' ἂν ἐυτραπέλως τὸ σῶμα αὐταρκες παρέχεσθαι." (*Pericles apud Thucyd.* ii. 41).

an active life will have turned his hand to half a dozen different professions or ways of getting a livelihood.

> Eris tu qui modo miles
> Mercator; tu consultus, modo rusticus: hinc vos,
> Vos hinc, mutatis discedite partibus.*

"The one lesson we are taught all through life," a person one day humorously but truly said to me, "is to be *dis*contented with our station."

And it is this temper more than any other, intensified by the opportunities that the country affords and the prizes that it holds out to enterprize and ability, which is the motive power that sustains the schools. Corresponding, therefore, with these ideas, and reflecting these phenomena, must be the popular system of education. And the correspondence is marvellously exact, the reflection wonderfully true. The American school is a microcosm of American life. There reigns in it the same spirit of freedom and equality; the same rapidity of movement, scarce leaving time for work to be thoroughly well done; the same desire of progress, eagerly catching at every new idea, ever on the look out for improvements; the same appeals to ambition, the same sensitiveness to praise and blame, the same subordination of the individual to the mass, of the scholar to the class, as of the citizen to the nation; the same prominence given to pursuits of a utilitarian, over pursuits of a refining, aim; the same excessive and exhausting strain on the mental and physical powers; the same feverishness and absence of repose;—elements of strength and weakness, of success and failure, mingled together in proportions which make it almost impossible to find any one discriminating epithet by which to characterize the resultant whole. I must content myself with enumerating the more prominent qualities—the advantages and disadvantages which are correlative to each other—and, as I do not feel that I have a right to occupy the seat of judge, shall leave my readers to strike the balance for themselves.

Harmony of the school system with other institutions.

I. First, then, the system is in perfect harmony with the other institutions of the country. It is democratic, equal, free. But democratic institutions do not work with their full freedom and equality where the rapid growth of material prosperity is introducing social distinctions, and where, if not an aristocracy of birth or nobility, yet an aristocracy of wealth is being insensibly, but

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No one's position fixed.

* *Horat. Sat.* i. 1. 16–18. "An objection sometimes heard is, that if high "schools, or good schools of any kind, are open to the poor, this class will "be educated above their station, and be dissatisfied with it. This will never "be the influence of right education. It better fits the individual for any "station to which he may be called. It makes a more intelligent mechanic "or worker in the soil, and a better member of society. But who can fix "the position of any man in this country? How often have men from the "labouring classes, or from active business life, been raised to positions of "honour and trust in the State and nation?" (*Connecticut Report for* 1865, p. 30).

surely, formed.* And so the American schools, particularly in the large cities and in the higher grades, are practically in the possession of the middle class. The sons and daughters of the wealthiest (with a few exceptions, which only prove the rule) are not in them; nor, in many places, the sons and daughters of the poorest either. The efficiency of the system—in the sense of its actually supplying the wants of every class of society, and really furnishing *common* schools—is nearly in an inverse ratio to the prosperity of the district in which it operates.†

Exposed to the same dangers.

And further, the school, from its very harmony with other institutions, is exposed to the same corrupting influences; and as in some places the posts of municipal authority have fallen into the hands of unscrupulous politicians who use their vantage ground to promote, not the public weal, but the interests of their party, so, we have seen, in the same places it is distinctly alleged that the politicians are doing their best to taint and spoil the schools.

It meets the wants of the people.

II. Again. The system exactly answers the wants of the people; their wants, I mean, as they understand them themselves. The principle of local self-government being supreme in the constitution of the schools, what people require, that they can have; at least, all is in their own hands. "Progress under the "direction of an educated *minority*," it has been recently said,‡ is

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Pure democracy not to be found in cities.

* Pure American democracy of the best type is not to be found in the cities and hives of industry, not in New York or Philadelphia, or even in Boston, but in states like Vermont, the Arcadia of the Union, or in districts like the western counties of Massachusetts. It is emphatically a New England product, and a product of New England country life. A Massachusetts gentleman, whose acquaintance I owe to the kind introduction of Professor Goldwin Smith, a man of the most cultivated mind, who finds it one of his greatest pleasures to spend his summer months in a rural township among the western farmers of his State, wrote to me in these words just before I left for home. "I wish you could have come here, where we still "linger, to see the true, characteristic, simple New England life. It would "have given you certainly some pleasure to see so healthy, happy, and pro-"mising a community—promising, I mean, for the future, as already ex-"hibiting a higher type of civilization than is found elsewhere in a com-"munity of equal size."

Through the hospitality of one of Boston's most respected citizens, I did manage to see something of Massachusetts rural life, though it was on the eastern, not the western, border of the State.

Advantages of the schools unequally distributed.

† I speak of the efficiency of the *system*, as such, not of the efficiency of particular schools. The theory of the system is equal educational advantages for all. These are best enjoyed where the social position of all is equal, or nearly equal. Material prosperity necessarily begets inequalities of social position, and, as a consequence, unequal opportunities for profiting by the advantages of the school. Of course, *ceteris paribus*, the most efficient schools exist where most money is spent upon them, and that naturally would be in wealthy districts. But then the benefit, though theoretically open to all, is practically reaped only by a few. We have already seen it stated that in New York not half the children who enter the primary schools ever pass on to the grammar schools. And the high school, which is perhaps five or six times times as expensive per child, is absolutely (or with only a very few exceptions) in the possession of those whose circumstances are so far easy that they can dispense with the earnings of their children as an addition to their own.

‡ In an article in the *Saturday Review*. The expression struck me at the time I read it, but I omitted to note it down for reference.

just now the maximum of desire on the part of most moderate-minded Englishmen; progress under the direction of the majority, whether educated or not, is the necessity of Americans. I do not know that the education offered to a country parish in England would thrive better than it does now if its character were left to be determined by the votes of the ratepayers; and in *New* England complaints are rife enough that districts do not always understand their wants, or at least do not adequately provide for them; that false, narrow ideas on the subject extensively prevail; that the best education is too often considered to be that which costs least; that too little general interest is taken in the cause; and that, as a consequence, the success is far inferior to what ought to be achieved.* What ought to be the school's greatest source of strength—the fact that its destinies are in the hands of those who are to profit directly by its advantages—proves, under the influence of selfish or sordid motives, in too many cases to be its principal element of weakness.

Cheapness of the system.

III. The system is a cheap system.† In places where sordid views prevail it is made cheap at the cost of efficiency; by reducing the time during which the school is kept open to the narrowest limit; by cutting down the salaries of the teachers to the lowest sum; by neglecting to furnish it with the needful supplies of apparatus and books.‡ But in cities, where the support is most liberal, and indeed any sum that is asked for is given, still the system is cheap; 25*s.* to 30*s.* a year per child in the lower grades, 6*l.* to 10*l.* per year in the high school. The economy

Local apathy.

* "We think the failure to secure greater success is attributable to parental indifference, and want of general interest in the subject of education. This indifference is much more prevalent in some districts than in others. It manifests itself in the irregular attendance of children, neglect to furnish a suitable supply of books, in thinly-attended school-meetings, in an indisposition to sustain the teacher in the enforcement of healthful rules and regulations; and in various other ways the benefits of a well-regulated and efficient school are, apparently, wholly disregarded. We believe two things to be indispensable requisites to a good school—good teachers, possessing not only a high order of literary qualifications, but a tact and aptness to teach, and a character that will command the respect and esteem of youth; and then a hearty support and co-operation on the part of parents and the members of the district" (*Connecticut Report for* 1865, p. 69).

Of course, this apathy tells with infinitely more fatal effect in rural districts than in cities. Whatever may be the case in some parts of Massachusetts, not all American villages, not even all Massachusetts villages, are happy communities, where prejudices are unknown and all are of one mind. Mr. Northrop, in his Report for 1864, speaks of the need of encouraging every "fraternizing" influence, "divided, as the residents of our rural districts and villages often "are, by party or sect, by prejudice or neighbourhood difficulties" (p. 46). The fact is that human nature is much the same at bottom, everywhere.

† See the figures and calculations given, *above*, p. 52–58.

Local parsimony.

‡ "Some districts seem to have a mortal dread of extending their schools "beyond the limit of recognition by law, while others have equal horror of "expending anything more than the public money" (*Connecticut Report for* 1865, p. 69). "Wages $2, or it may be $2.50 a week; terms 24 or some-"times 30 weeks; vacations from 22 to 28 weeks, during which time we take "for granted teachers must have something to eat, drink, and wear, at what "cost each one can figure for himself;" such is the picture of one Massachusetts township (28*th Report*, p. 130).

results from the principle of grading, and from the number of children of equal attainments in the same class who can be taught by the same teacher as though they were but one. Schools in England might be made as cheap if they could be organized on the same system. Throw all the schools of Edinburgh or London under one board of management, grade them, entrust each teacher with the oversight of 50 pupils, and the cost per child would probably be as low with us as it is in the United States. But in a graded school the class is the unit to the teacher's eye, and not the individual girl or boy, and what is gained in cheapness is almost lost again in thoroughness; and it is too much the tendency of all teachers, without the direct encouragement of the system under which they are working, to act upon the maxim, "Occupet extremum scabies."* If discrimination is a high gift in a teacher, there is very little scope or necessity for its exercise in a graded school.

IV. The spirit of work produced under the system both in teachers and pupils, and the discipline of the schools, are both high. The teachers are constantly under the eye of the public, are placed in keen competition one with another, and anxiously look forward to the figures which will show in the Superintendent's next report how their school compares with other schools of the same grade. They are kept up to the full tension of their strength; sometimes, indeed, the tension is too great for their strength, and I frequently heard teachers say they wanted rest—a want which their worn, hectic looks abundantly showed. The system stimulating.

Continued idleness, again, in a pupil, such as is allowed without any very strong effort to correct it, at Eton and elsewhere, would not be tolerated in an American school. The influence of idleness is felt to be contagious. If a boy won't work he must not by a bad example corrupt his schoolfellows—he must be withdrawn.

"Collige sarcinulas," dicet præceptor, "et exi."†

Discipline, too, is nearly perfect in the best schools, but it is of a kind to which it would be hopeless to attempt to get 500 English boys of the upper or middle class to submit, and which even by many Americans is considered too repressive and mechanical. It is the discipline that sits upright, and keeps step, and moves a mass as with one impulse, rather than anything that goes much deeper;—though, at the same time, American boy-nature seems to be much more amenable to law than English boy-nature, which, if not absolutely disorderly, at least hates "môts d' ordre" and the restraints of a rule;—and also it is purchased at the price of the repression of those high animal spirits which delight in athletic exercises, and

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* *Horat. Epist. ad Pisones*, 417.

† *Juvenal. Sat.* vi. 145. "By the rules of the Philadelphia Central High School, any pupil who fails to obtain a term average of 50 marks is dropped from the list; and any pupil having an average of less than 50 with three professors is debarred promotion. Of the class admitted in July, numbering 160, 19 were dropped, and 19 failed of promotion." (*Controllers' 46th Report*, p. 240.) Allowance is made for sickness and for causes not under the scholar's control. Expulsion at Philadelphia.

make the playground almost as efficient an instrument in the education of an English boy as the school-room.* Of the evil results of work at "high pressure" enough has been said in an earlier page of this Report.

Aggregate and comparative results.

I do not know that the aggregate results of the system can be better summed up than by saying that there exists in America a general diffusion of intelligence rather than any high culture or profound erudition.† If I were to compare them with the results of the best education at home, I should say that an American pupil probably leaves school with more special knowledge, but with less general development. He would have more acquaintance (not very profound, though,) with certain branches of physical science, perhaps more, certainly as much, acquaintance with mathematics, but not more acquaintance with modern languages, and much less acquaintance with the ancient languages and classical literature. I think our best teachers are better (perhaps because more regularly educated) than their best; but our worst

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Physical exercise and games.

* "It is said that a medical survey of all the schools of New York was "made some years ago, showing a frightful state of affairs. A very large "per-centage of the boys and girls"—I was told 35 per cent. of the girls, and 30 per cent. of the boys—"had spinal affections; and though it may not "be justly said that they were caused to any great degree by attending the "schools, yet there is no doubt that the want of proper ventilation in school "buildings, of proper school appliances, and of sufficient exercise during "school hours, contributed greatly to the increase of the unhealthy condition of "the pupils" (*Philadelphia Controllers' 46th Report*, p. 38).

More attention is beginning to be paid in America to the subject of physical exercises and games. Gymnasia, well furnished, are now added to many of the educational institutions. At Philadelphia I went to see the "Natatorium," which has been established five years. It is admirable in all its arrangements. It is said to have taught 3,000 females and 6,000 males to swim. Boating is practised with as much zeal at Yale and Harvard as at Oxford and Cambridge, and the race between the picked "sixes" of those two universities on the waters of a Massachusetts lake interests the American public as deeply as the University boat race on the Thames interests us in England. Cricket clubs, also, are beginning to be heard of in the United States.

General diffusion of knowledge in the United States.

† "Je ne pense pas," says De Tocqueville, "qu'il y ait de pays dans le "monde où, proportion gardée avec la population, il se trouve aussi peu "d'ignorants, et moins de savants qu'en Amérique. L'instruction primaire "y est à la portée de chacun; l'instruction supérieure n'y est presque à la "portée de personne" (vol. i. 62). I cannot disguise from myself, with all my preferences for a denominational system of education at home as the only one, so far as I can see, likely or able to supply the mass of our people with the one thing lacking in the American method, sound and substantial grounding in the principles of the Christian religion—still, I repeat, I cannot disguise from myself that the average American, and particularly the average American of the mechanic or labouring class, stands on a vantage ground in respect both of knowledge and intelligence as compared with the average Englishman; and I feel forcibly that we denominationalists and voluntaryists, if we are to retain denominationalism and voluntaryism, must throw ourselves much more heartily into the work, and make our schools much more thoroughly efficient, than we have yet done. A peasant or an artisan has a right to turn round upon a system, (which he does not provide for himself, but is asked to accept at the hand of others,) and be dissatisfied with it, if, though it has taught him a catechism (the value of which I would not depreciate), it has left him deficient in the first rudiments of secular knowledge, and brings him to the starting-post, to run the race of life, with the weight of ignorance and undeveloped faculties superadded to the inevitable disadvantages of poverty and a low estate.

teachers are incomparably worse, duller, more immethodical, more indolent, more uninteresting, than anything I saw or can conceive of being tolerated among them. An American teacher may be immoral, ignorant, and in many ways incompetent, but he, and particularly she, could hardly be dull. Liveliness and energy, hiding sometimes perhaps a multitude of other sins, seem to be their inherent qualities. I saw in America many inefficient schools, but the drowsy dullness of the teacher and the inattentive habits of the children, which characterize so many an English school, I never saw.

Information in America preferred to development.

The mistake that is commonly made in America is one, I fear, that is taking some root in England—a confusion of thought between the processes that convey knowledge and the processes that develop mental power, and a tendency to confine the work of the school too exclusively to the former. It is perhaps the inevitable tendency of an age of material prosperity and utilitarian ideas. Of course, the processes of education are carried on through media that convey information too, and a well-educated man, if not necessarily *is*, at any rate almost necessarily *becomes*, a well-informed man. But, in my sense of things, the work of education has been successfully accomplished when a scholar has learnt just three things—what he really *does* know, what he does *not* know, and *how* knowledge is in each case acquired; in other words, education is the development and training of *faculties*, rather than, to use a favourite American word, the "presentation" to the mind of *facts*. What was Aristotle's conception of the man whom he calls περὶ πᾶν πεπαιδευμένος—"thoroughly educated?"* Not, I take it, a man of encyclopædic information, but a man of perfectly trained and well-balanced mind, able to apply to any subject that may occupy his attention its proper methods, and to draw from it its legitimate conclusions. Hence the proper functions of a sound system of education are to quicken the observation, strengthen the memory, discipline the reason, cultivate the taste; and that is the best system which gives to each faculty of our complex nature its just and proportionate development.† The

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* The passage is worth observing :—

Aristotle.

Πεπαιδευμένου ἐστιν ἐπὶ τοσοῦτον τἀκριβὲς ἐπιζητεῖν καθ' ἕκαστον γένος, ἐφ' ὅσον ἡ τοῦ πράγματος φύσις ἐπιδέχεται. παραπλήσιον γὰρ φαίνεται, μαθηματικοῦ τε πιθανολογοῦντος ἀποδέχεσθαι, καὶ ῥητορικὸν ἀποδείξεις ἀπαιτεῖν. Ἕκαστος δὲ κρίνει καλῶς ἃ γινώσκει, καὶ τούτων ἐστὶν ἀγαθὸς κριτής. καθ' ἕκαστον ἄρα ὁ πεπαιδευμένος. ἁπλῶς δὲ, ὁ περὶ πᾶν πεπαιδευμένος" (*Arist. Eth. Nicom.* i. c. 3. s. 4, 5).

Mr. Superintendent Randall's view of "intellectual culture."

† An effort is being made by some of the best minds in America to direct public opinion to sounder theory and practice in this matter, to teach it to distrust immediate and (falsely called) utilitarian *results*, and to place more faith in *methods*. I quote from the conclusion of the last report of Mr. Superintendent Randall of New York.

"Intellectual culture is the principal object of public school instruction. Moral and religious culture, however important and indispensable in the formation of character, can only be incidentally communicated. The character of the teacher, the influences of the school-room, the requisitions of order, quiet and respectful deportment, truth, honesty, self-control, the faithful performance of all prescribed duties, and the religious exercises at the opening and closing of the school, are the chief agencies by which, in these institutions, the moral and religious faculties of the pupil can be strengthened and matured.

American schools devote themselves far too exclusively to the two former aims; the latter two receive much less attention than they deserve. The results are such as might be expected to flow from any one-sided and partial treatment of the human mind. Subjects are constantly "memorized" without being understood, and hence their stay in the memory is precarious and transitory,* while,

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The prominent and special work to be done is the cultivation and discipline of the mind; first, by the positive communication of the elementary principles of knowledge, and then by the development and expansion of the faculties of reason, judgment, and discrimination, by such methods as shall most certainly and effectually conduce to the investigation and attainment of truth in any and every department of inquiry. . . . The great end, then, to be kept in view, in intellectual education, should be the systematic development of the faculty of strict logical reasoning from accurately ascertained premises. . . . Correctness and accuracy of observation, careful discrimination of differences, comparison, induction, and generalization, may and should form an indispensable part of all school instruction. . . . Thus . . . by keeping constantly in view the whole complex nature of the being, all whose faculties, physical, intellectual, moral, and social, are to be developed, disciplined, and directed, the great work of EDUCATION may be satisfactorily accomplished, and the spring time of life, while in no respect deprived of its exuberant sources of happiness and enjoyment, consecrated to its legitimate task of preparation for a bountiful and abundant harvest of usefulness, honour, and fame" (*New York Report for* 1864, pp. 24–37). Mr. Herbert Spencer's books are much in the hands of American educationists, and highly approved of by them, and may have contributed in some measure to the dissemination of these ideas.

Evils of the "memoriter system."

* See particularly on this point a "Report on the Memoriter System," printed in the 28*th Cincinnati Report*, pp. 145-9. First is quoted the language of the city Superintendent to this effect: "Our methods of instruction are yet "so imperfect that hundreds of children leave our schools annually, furnished "with complete sets of rules and principles, but who know no more of their "use than a savage does of a sextant. Geography is forgotten, even in its "common definitions; and thousands are annually issuing from our schools who "have acquired by a kind of agglomeration vast stores of what they do not "immediately need, and who are totally ignorant of what they wish to use. "They cannot write well enough to be able to make an entry in a day-book, "they cannot spell correctly the words of a single sentence, they are bad "grammarians, and only learn to add after being in places of business." It is further stated, on the same authority, that "the graduates of the high "schools, after being out of school for a few months, are not able to answer "correctly 50 per cent. of those questions on which they obtained 80 per "cent. when they entered four years previously;" and it is considered "extremely questionable whether it is policy to invest such large amounts as "are expended in these schools in stocks which depreciate so rapidly."

The committee appointed to inquire into this state of things and to suggest a remedy, while allowing (what I think is very probable) that the Superintendent's "just indignation" has led him "unquestionably to deal in hyper-"bole in these statements," allow also that there is too much truth in them; and after offering some practical suggestions of a remedial kind, conclude with the following sensible remarks: "The essential thing is to measure the "progress of instruction by the development of the reasoning powers of the "child. This may often be slow, but it is sure, and will ultimately accom-"plish the end, provided due restraint is manifested so as not to hasten. It "is the rapid advancement of a child by the stress placed upon the memory "rather than the understanding, that makes the labour of his schooling so "detestable. Children love to acquire, and take pleasure in study, but it is "only when they comprehend what is taught, and are made to understand its "practical application. It could not be possible that the graduates of our "high schools fail to answer one-half of the questions which admitted them "four years previously from the district school, *if their education was not based* "*upon the memory rather than upon the understanding.*"

though facts are observed, they are not sufficiently classified, and the reasoning powers and the taste, the latter especially, are left to form themselves pretty much at will. The programme of the schools, particularly in the higher grades, is too wide and multifarious. Subjects are taken up for awhile and then dropped (and presently forgotten), to make room for others that have been long waiting their turn. When occasionally expressing my surprise that an important subject like a language, French or German for instance, after being studied for three or four terms, then disappeared from the programme, and did not seem afterwards to be resumed, I was met by the invariable explanation that it got "crowded out." I doubt whether American school managers accept the maxim, "Ne multa sed multum," as true of the process of education. In nothing did the managers of the Boston schools seem to me to give greater evidence of good sense and wisdom than in the manifest desire they showed to contract their programme into narrower limits, and to attach more importance to sound methods than to showy but superficial results.

The date of this report, to which I have previously referred, is 1857, and the Superintendent was ordered to "make it a special duty to eradicate the "'memoriter' method from the schools" of Cincinnati, with what success I cannot say, as the Cincinnati schools were not in session when I visited that city in July. The evil certainly is not eradicated from the schools of other cities, and is the ground of that complaint of "superficiality" which was the loudest and most frequent charge that I head brought against the system of education pursued in the public schools. At the same time the administrators of the system are aware of the prevalence of the evil, and do their best to remedy it, but it seems difficult to persuade the impatient American nature to take the slower but surer way. I quote an illustrative extract from the New York City Report of 1865: "It is very desirable," says Mr. Assistant-Superintendent Kiddle, "that all possible pains should be taken in the instruction and "training of the classes who pursue this (supplementary, or highest girls') "course, so that the acquisitions which they make may be both extensive and "thorough. This has by no means uniformly been the case, according to the "evidence presented by the examinations of the present year. Undue haste "and *unthinking superficiality* characterize very many of these advanced classes. ". . . The teachers who have charge of them should carefully bear in "mind that they are in a measure engaged in normal instruction, and that "it is their duty not only to see that the information contained in a particular "text book is acquired, but to give in their own instruction a constant model "to be followed hereafter by the pupils when they are called upon to teach, "and also to see that facility of illustration, with clearness and accuracy "of statement, results from the instruction imparted. In this respect many "of the classes examined by me proved lamentably deficient. They evinced "*no correctness of reasoning*, because they had no clearly conceived data from "which to reason; *ex. gr.*, in trying to demonstrate propositions regarding the "perpendicular, without being able to give the definition of a perpendicular. "They could not apply principles to particular and practical questions, "because they had no correct or definite conception of the principles themselves. They could not state these principles except by means of some "stereotyped verbal formulæ, the terms of which they could not define or "explain" (p. 45). As a consequence, out of 284 candidates for graduation and for teachers' certificates of grade A, only 78, or 27½ per cent., succeeded in obtaining the object of their desire (*Ibid.* p. 43). The failures, it is said, chiefly arose from the attempt to "accomplish in one year" what "could not, "under the most favourable circumstances, be thoroughly learned in less than "twice that time." The attempt issued, in many cases, not only in failure, but in seriously, if not permanently, broken health.

Faults of taste.

I have spoken of the cultivation of taste as an element of education. The great defect, in my judgment, in American taste, literary as well as other, is, speaking generally, its apparent incompetency to appreciate the beauty of simplicity, which really constitutes the charm of the merely graceful and the grandeur of the sublime. De Tocqueville has noticed, with his usual perspicacity, the preference of American orators and writers for a bombastic and inflated style.* Architects overload their buildings with florid and often anachronous ornament. The toilette of a lady of fashion in New York, for cost and gorgeousness, far exceeds anything that ordinarily meets the eye in the parks of London, or perhaps even in the drawing rooms of Paris. The foundations of this, I cannot help calling it, vicious taste are laid in the schools. The pruning-knife is not applied with half enough severity to the exuberant overgrowth of young ladies' and young gentlemen's poetic or rhetorical fancies, as they find play for themselves in essays and declamations. Almost too much attention is paid to elocution,† and "passion," when required to be expressed at all, is often "torn to very rags," and that intensity and vehemence which are characteristic of American nature, and which require moderation rather than encouragement, are allowed full range.

Reading books develop the evil.

The reading books most in use sin, if it be a sin, in the same direction. Avoiding the evil of dry, uninteresting, graceless

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Bombastic style.

* "Les Américains . . . . donnent volontiers dans le boursoufflé dès qu'ils "veulent aborder le style poétique. Ils se montrent alors pompeux sans "relâche d'un bout à l'autre du discours, et l'on croirait, en les voyant ainsi "prodiguer les images à tout propos, qu'ils n'ont jamais rien dit simplement. ". . . . Ils gonflent leur imagination sans cesse, et l'étendant outre mesure, "ils lui font atteindre le gigantesque, pour lequel elle abandonne souvent le "grand . . . . La foule qui ne cherche dans la poésie que des objets très-"vastes, n'a pas le temps de mesurer exactement les proportions de tous les "objets qu'on lui présente, ni le goût assez sûr pour apercevoir facilement en "quoi ils sont disproportionnés. L'auteur et le public se corrompent à la fois "l'un par l'autre" (vol. ii. p. 85, 86). It would not be De Tocqueville if he had not an ingenious hypothesis drawn from the social conditions of a democracy to account for this phenomenon, which he admits does not vitiate English literature to nearly the same extent.

Elocution insufficiently attended to in England.

† When I say this, it is right that I should also say that I think that elocution is an accomplishment to which, in the higher English schools, far too little attention is paid. I take it that, as a nation, we are the worst readers in the world. At our great public schools, I imagine, anything like the suggestion of a "reading lesson" would be treated with disdain, and yet it might not be an unprofitable exercise. I do not know anything much more painful or unedifying than the way in which the Scripture lessons are ordinarily read in the chapel service by undergraduates at our universities. At some of the colleges in Cambridge prizes are given for the best reading in chapel. It is hardly a nice thing to give a prize for, and I do not know whether the prize produces any good effect. I may add that in both the High Schools at Boston the teachers throughout the course are required to "pay particular attention to "the penmanship of the pupils, and to give constantly such instructions in "spelling, reading, and English grammar as they may deem necessary to make "the pupils familiar with those fundamental branches of a good education." (*Regulations*, ch. xiii. s. 14.) This is a practical wisdom which we might imitate with advantage. At present it is not considered necessary to the education of an English gentleman that he should be able to read so as to be listened to with pleasure, or to write a fair and legible hand.

detail, which is the notable feature of so many of the reading-books found in English schools, they run into the opposite extreme. In the earlier volumes of the series, which are merely meant to give the mechanical power of reading with fluency, the evil is less perceptible; but in the more advanced books, where the aim is more distinctly to form the taste and style, extracts from writers of the modern sensational school are far too numerous, selections from authors justly deemed classic far too few.

Taste not formed upon the best models.

It is true that what is called "*belles lettres*" scholarship is highly valued in America; and that perhaps even excessive care is spent on what are considered beauties of composition and style. But I am not quite sure that the taste of the nation—and I speak here not of individuals but of the mass—is formed upon the best models. I suspect that Johnson would generally be considered by them a greater prose-writer than Addison; Milton a grander poet than Shakespeare. It is here that the limited extent to which an acquaintance with the great literary monuments of Greece and Rome is carried in the American schools acts unfavourably upon the literary culture of the people themselves.* Certainly Homer and Virgil, Xenophon and Cicero, the models of the literary taste of every age and country, are read in the schools; but the language of these great writers has been studied for too short a previous period to allow of the lessons given being anything more than exercises in construing and parsing, in the course of which but little attention can be paid to precision of thought, proprieties of expression, or charm of style.†

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* See De Tocqueville, "Pourquoi l'étude de la littérature grecque et latine est "particulièrement utile dans les sociétés démocratiques" (vol. ii. pp. 67-69, quoted above p. 135, note †).

Views of an American professor.

† I cannot resist quoting a passage from an essay by an American professor in support of these views. "The progress in physical knowledge fills up that "department in the general scheme of education, in which former ages were "so deficient. Still the limited time allotted to our primary schools" (he means all schools preparatory to college) "requires that there should be a "limited selection, corresponding best to that governing idea which has been "presented of the proper culture of the mind. Instead, then, of the present "rage for the physical sciences, to the exclusion of everything else; instead "of smatterings of botany and mineralogy; instead of 'child's books on "'physiology' having just enough to make them the dupes of every quackish "lecturer who chooses to adopt a scientific lingo, and accounts for everything "by electricity; instead of this, or along with some of this, if it must be so, "let history and language and logic, and some of the plainer branches of the "pure mathematics, have a space bearing some proportion to their import-"ance, even in our common schools. Let English grammar, accompanied "with the analysis of words in our own language, be studied long and "thoroughly. Let a considerable portion of the time devoted to common "school education be occupied with the daily reading and critical study of "selections from our most choice English classics. If the poor man's child "must remain ignorant of some branches of physical science, or know nothing "of Shakespeare and Milton, by all means let the first be sacrificed. Let "something be done, during this brief period, for even the most lowly, "towards elevating their thoughts and tastes above the hard practical "drudgeries with which they will become familiar enough in after life. If it

No public collections of paintings or statuary.

In touching upon this point of national taste some allowance must be made for the rareness, inevitable in a new country where the conquest of the soil and the development of material wealth is the primary concern of the people, of art-museums, picture galleries, and those other instrumentalities which have been found so efficacious in older civilizations in teaching the public mind to recognize and appreciate the grand, the beautiful, the pure. There are said to be fine works of art in the possession of private collectors in America; but there is hardly such a thing as a public gallery of paintings or of sculpture worthy the name. That attached to the Cooper Institute at New York, in its present condition, will certainly do very little to elevate taste; and though Boston is somewhat a-head of its neighbour in this respect, and can boast in connexion with its Athenæum of a collection which contains several good copies and a few good original pictures, the gallery did not seem to me to be very largely visited or to exercise any very considerable influence. With so few standards, therefore, of artistic beauty and proportion to exhibit to the eye, there exists all the greater need that the best models of accurate thought and chastened feeling, as expressed in language, should be presented to the mind; and as the printing press has made the whole range of classic literature common ground, it is to be regretted that influences which are out of reach are not compensated by others which are at hand, and that Homer and Virgil, Plato and Cicero, Sophocles and Terence, are not made to do for America what they, in conjunction with

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" be, indeed, a very short time they can devote to knowledge, let that know-
" ledge be of the purest kind, knowledge most intimately connected with the
" soul and its noblest tastes, knowledge that shall enter into the spiritual life,
" and be the spirit's remembered solace amid the depressing toils of after days.
" A precious season this, the very few years of a poor child's schooling! Let
" us see to it that it be filled with what is most precious in thought, and in its
" after-power upon the soul. Let us not, under the pressure of what we call
" 'immediate practical utility,' be so cruel as to give them, for their daily
" reading-books, miserably composed works on the ordinary economies of
" life; or selections from town laws or from revised statutes that hardly last
" half a dozen years till they are revised again; or newspapers, as some would
" recommend; or such quackish things as 'Combe's Constitution of Man;'
" instead of the choicest extracts from Addison and Blair, and Johnson and
" Milton, from Burke and Beattie, Pope and Goldsmith; from Spenser,
" Cowper, Thomson, Young; from Coleridge, Scott, and Burns; books, from
" which thousands, even in humblest life, have received elevation of taste,
" purity of conception, command of language, appreciation of sound reason-
" ing; a *feeling*, at least, of the power that is in well-chosen words, even if
" there was not received all the rich fulness of that import which they carry to
" minds of higher cultivation" (*Professor Tayler Lewis on Liberal Education, in Appendix to 17th Report of N.Y. Regents*, p. 20). I found a widely spread fear, in many directions, of the encroachments of the physical sciences on the general domain of education, as though they were trying to occupy the whole ground. We have already seen the fate of the Classics: and even the Mathematics, I was told, can hardly maintain their position even in the Universities of Yale and Harvard. They get "crowded out" by other studies of more "immediate practical utility."

Phidias and Raffaelle, and the other potent magicians in the world of art, have done for Europe.*

Tone of an American school.

The tone of an American school,—that "nescio quid" so hard to be described, but so easily recognized by the experienced eye, so soon felt by the quick perceptions of the heart,†—if not unsatisfactory is yet incomplete. It is true that the work of the day commences with the reading of the Word of God, generally followed by prayer. It is true that decorous, if not reverent attention is paid during both those exercises; but the decorum struck me as rather a result or a part of discipline than as a result of spiritual impressions; there was no "face as it had been the face of an "an angel;" no appearance of kindled hearts. The intellectual tone of the schools is high; the moral tone, though perhaps a little too self-conscious, is not unhealthy; but another tone which can only be vaguely described in words, but of which one feels oneself in the presence when it is really there, and which, for want of a better name, I must call the "religious" tone, one misses, and misses with regret.

A religious poet has painted, in exquisite language, his idea of a Christian school as it passes before a watchful pastor's scan.

'Tis not the eye of keenest blaze,
Nor the quick-swelling breast,
That soonest thrill at touch of praise—
These do not please him best.
But voices low and gentle,
And timid glances shy,
That seem for aid parental
To sue all wistfully,
Still pressing, longing to be right,
Yet fearing to be wrong,
In these the Pastor dares delight,
A lamb-like, Christ-like throng.‡

It ought not to be hard to conjecture, after what has been said, which type of child abounds most in American schools. I doubt if the latter temper, however charming to the sentimentalist, would be either appreciated or fostered by those who watch the development of youthful faculties there. To "seem for

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School of Design at Newhaven.

Art Museum at Toronto.

* A liberal gentleman is now erecting at his own cost a very handsome "School of Art and Design" in connexion with Yale University at Newhaven. The building is to cost $100,000, and will probably be finished this year. But it is easier to construct buildings of that kind or for such a purpose than, when constructed, to turn them to profitable account. The Chief Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada, sensible of the educational value of such influences, has managed to include the formation of an art museum in the recognized functions of his department. He has procured well-executed copies of works of the best masters, illustrating the different schools of painting, and has filled a gallery at Toronto which appears, from the register of names that is kept, to attract a good many visitors, and I believe the action of the department in this respect is generally approved.

† "Ὁρῶσι διὰ τὸ ἔχειν ἐκ τῆς ἐμπειρίας ὅμμα," says Aristotle (*Eth. Nicom.* vi. c. 8. s. 6). "Qualem nequeo monstrare et sentio tantum" (*Juvenal, Sat.* vii. 56).

‡ *Christian Year, 25th Sunday after Trinity.*

"aid parental to sue all wistfully," would be deemed, at best, an amiable weakness, likely to interfere seriously with ultimate success in life. The sooner an American boy learns to stand alone and depend solely on himself, the better all who are concerned about his well-doing seem to be pleased. The quick "thrill at touch of praise," the desire to excel, the ambition to be foremost, are found to be the most powerful motives to study, the most efficient instruments of discipline. Indeed it may be doubted whether they are not employed to excess for this purpose. It is the custom to request visitors to the schools to make little speeches to the assembled pupils.* The staple of most that I heard was the well-worn theme of the infinite career that lay before them, and the possibility of every boy who listened to the speaker becoming President of the United States, or occupying a position equally honourable and equally to be coveted. To my judgment, and in the judgment of not a few Americans themselves, there is far too much of this. Such addresses, no doubt, are stimulating; but it must be recollected that there are unhealthy stimulants; and I was told stories enough by sober people, who disapproved of the practice, of many a boy, conscious of talents and urged on by such motives, who, attempting one of these grand careers, and failing, sank at last into nothing better than a discontented and mischievous politician.

No restraint upon extravagant opinions.

It might be thought also that amid the wildness of religious fancy and the strangeness of theological opinions which prevail in America to an extent far beyond anything within an Englishman's experience, the blessings of a fixed creed would be more easily recognized and more strongly felt than where traditional beliefs still largely influence public thought, and men are less tossed about by winds of doctrine. It is unnecessary to say, however, that no attempt to lay the foundations of such a creed, or in any way to presume that such a creed even exists, is made in the common schools. It was my fortune one day to listen to the recital of a declamation in the New York Free Academy. The subject was "The Nineteenth Century." The youthful essayist, after describing in glowing periods and with a good deal of vigour the material triumphs of the era, wound up an able rhetorical exercise by declaring that there remained for the 19th century a greater work even than that which Luther accomplished in the 16th, and that was to sweep away all inherited creeds, to set the conscience free, and to bring the religious thoughts of men into more perfect harmony with the progress of the age. I whispered the question to the worthy Principal at my side, "Whether this was not rather extravagant?" and whether it was prudent to allow to opinions, so unfledged

* Occasionally an address is made that is really admirable. Nothing, for instance, can be better, in freshness, vigour, and appropriateness, than the speeches which Mr. James Gerard is expected to make whenever he visits a New York school, and which he does make in such a way as to be probably the best-known and most acceptable school-visitor in the city.

" and yet so daring, quite so perilous a latitude." " Oh," was the reply, " that's a young German, and they are mostly somewhat " radical; but we generally let them have their fling." When we declaimed at Oxford, our high, rash flights of thought and fancy were apt to be pulled down unpityingly by a judicious censor. In America " vaulting ambition " is allowed to " o'erleap itself," and find its own cure.

The common school system in relation to the future of Christianity and religion.

Mr. Tremenheere, about a dozen years ago, relying chiefly on the evidence of the Rev. Dr. Edson, of Lowell, drew a somewhat sombre picture of some consequences that might be apprehended to religion and morality from the course of instruction pursued in the American public schools. His remarks excited a good deal of attention, and something like a reply was offered to them in a pamphlet written by the Hon. Edward Twisleton. I had the pleasure of spending a day with Dr. Edson, and found that he retained his opinions unchanged; but they are not the opinions of most persons in the United States with whom I conversed on the subject; not even of most persons who take a deep interest in religious questions, and who would be keenly concerned for the unimpaired maintenance of religious truth.* Christianity has a dark and uncertain future before it in America, as it has in England; as it has, probably, in most nations where free thoughts have been stirred; but people did not seem to think that this future was made darker or more uncertain by the teaching or influence of the public schools. These do not form opinion so much as they are themselves formed by it; and I do not know that a course of study, earnestly pursued, even it does only stimulate the intellect, ought therefore to be deemed hostile to religious truth or a moral life.† Unless the exercise of reason be antagonistic to the principle of faith, or unfavourable to the development of conscience, which it is sometimes asserted to be, though I am at a loss to conceive on what ground, intellectual culture, even if it stand alone, need not be considered morally or spiritually mischievous. And if the school does its part well, the home and the church may be asked to con-

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* Bishop Burgess of Maine has written a paper in Mr. Barnard's American Journal of Education in which he fully accepts the *necessity* of the condition of religion in relation to the common school, and yet is no alarmist about the future of religious truth.

† A " Presbyter of the Diocese of Toronto " in the first of " Seven Letters," which he wrote to a friend in 1853 " on the non-religious common school systems " of Canada and the United States," hazards the monstrous assertion " not " only on behalf of the Church, but of England also, that they think it safer " to give *no* education than to give an *irreligious* one!" (p. 6). A " merely in- " tellectual instruction of the masses of the people in secular knowledge," in this gentleman's eyes, is an " irreligious education "—" dishonorable to God, " subversive of national morality, and awfully dangerous to individual happiness " (p. 3). I wonder what advantage people suppose to accrue from such bitter, narrow paradoxes? I think that neither " England " nor the Church would accept the Presbyter of the Diocese of Toronto as an exponent of their views.

tribute their influences to the formation of the general character.* And those who know Dr. Edson, with all their respect for his character, which indeed cannot be respected too highly for its consistency and simplicity, know also that, probably from temperament, he is

American Sunday schools.

* A good deal of importance is attached in the United States to the action of the Sunday—or as it is there universally called the Sabbath School; and there is no doubt that considerable energy, stimulated perhaps in some cases by the spirit of competition, is expended upon this object. I attended large Sabbath School meetings both in New York and Boston, one in connexion with the American Sunday School Union, the other representing the schools belonging to the Episcopalian congregations. In both cases, it appeared to me that their purpose was rather to kindle religious emotions and to awaken religious sentiments, than to convey religious knowledge. In a village Sabbath School in Connecticut, which I heard taught under the superintendence of the pastor of the Church, the teaching was more catechetical and dogmatic; but everybody with whom I spoke on the subject, seemed to admit that the Sabbath School does not supply, to a sufficient extent, the leaven that is required.

Mr. Tremenheere states, as the result of some inquiries that he made at New York, that "the proportion of the children attending the day schools of that "city who do not attend Sunday School is very considerable;" and, putting the same fact into figures, assures us that whereas "the average attendance at the "public ward and corporate schools throughout the year (1851) had been "40,055; the average attendance at the Sunday Schools had been ascertained "to be only about 30,000," the number of children, meanwhile, in the city, between the ages of five and 15 years, being 97,959 (*Notes on Public Subjects*, p. 24).

I have not much doubt that a similar proportion would represent the existing state of things with tolerable exactness. In one grammar school, where I asked the question, I found that three-fourths of the first class were still attending Sunday School. At the Boston Latin School, the Master was kind enough to collect the statistics of the school in this respect, taken on the number of boys who happened to be present on the day of my visit. There were 221 boys at school; of these, all but nine *had* attended Sunday School; and 124 were still attending. I was informed that in Boston, and no doubt elsewhere, the Roman Catholics give distinctive religious instruction to their children, not only on Sundays, but on Wednesday and Saturday afternoons, which are half holidays in the public schools. In Cincinnati, by a rule of the Board of Education, half a day or two quarter days' leave of absence per week is granted to each pupil for the purpose of instruction in subjects not included in the school course. This regulation originally had reference to the case of children of Roman Catholics and Jews, and was for the purpose of enabling them to receive religious instruction. Previously, the Jews had separate schools, which have since been abandoned. Some parents use their liberty still for its original object; others, as an opportunity for their children to take lessons in dancing or instrumental music.

A marked feature of difference between the Sabbath School of America and the Sunday School of England is the extent to which it penetrates all classes of society. With us, it is almost confined to the children of the labouring and artizan classes: no well-to-do tradesman, no prosperous farmer thinks of sending his sons or daughters there. In America, both in the cities and in the country, children of all classes seem equally willing to attend the Sabbath School.

I do not believe that any large proportion of day school teachers teach also in the Sabbath Schools, though in New York I heard of several who did.

The Sabbath School is generally suspended, as is the day school, in the heat of summer.

I was not instructed, however, to make Sunday Schools a distinct branch of my inquiry, though I have thought that these promiscuous details might not be uninteresting.

apt to take gloomy and desponding views both of the realities of the present and of the presages of the future. Like many other excellent men, he thinks the age worse than it is, and likely to become worse still; and "the overflowings of ungodliness make "him afraid." While glad to be warned of our possible danger, it may be permitted us to indulge and be reassured by the hope that we may yet escape from it. When we do the best we can under our circumstances, the issues of things may be calmly left to a Higher Power.

To what cause the exclusion of religious teaching in American schools is really due.

I do not, therefore, like to call the American system of education, or to hear it called, *irreligious*. It is perhaps even going too far to say that it is *non-religious*, or purely secular. If the cultivation of some of the choicest intellectual gifts bestowed by God on man—the perceptions, memory, taste, judgment, reason;* if the exaction of habits of punctuality, attention, industry, and "good behaviour;" if the respect which is required and which is paid during the reading of a daily portion of God's holy Word and the daily saying of Christ's Universal Prayer, are all to be set down as only so many contrivances for producing "clever devils," it would be vain to argue against such a prejudice. But if, as I believe, the cultivation of any one of God's good gifts, and the attempt to develop any one right principle or worthy habit are, so far as they go, steps in the direction, not only of morality but of piety, materials with which both the moralist and the divine, the parent and the Sunday school teacher, may hope to build the structure of a "perfect man" which they desire, then it is manifestly ungenerous to turn round upon the system which does this, which supplies these materials of the building, and is prohibited by circumstances over which it has no control and to which it is forced to adapt itself from doing more, and stigmatize it with the brand of godlessness. For a most important fact has to be borne in mind here. It is to the discords of Christians, and not to the irreligiousness of educators that this, which is considered to be and which I admit to be the capital defect of the American system, is due. It is a remarkable circumstance that the schools from which the reading of the Bible is wholly excluded are just the schools where the heat of religious controversy, or at any rate the heat of religious feeling, has been the intensest, and the exclusion is charged to the objections of the Roman Catholic clergy alone.† As I have already

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* This, with whatever amount of actual success, is the combined object at which the system professes to aim, and to which (as we have seen) its ablest exponents are endeavouring to direct its aim more truly. That the practice falls below the theory is true of all systems that I know.

State of the case in Pennsylvania;

† This, at least, is the account of the case in the New York Ward Schools. I observe that the Bible is not read in a considerable number of Pennsylvanian schools. I expect that the omission is to be put to the account either of indifference in the teacher, or of a low religious tone in the neighbourhood. One County Superintendent, describing the moral condition of his schools, in 325 of which the Scriptures are read, and prayer used in 251, says: "A very great "deal depends on the character of the teacher. . . After all, the chief "cause of our trouble in this respect is to be found in ill-regulated families,

mentioned, many of the most earnest supporters of the system of common schools expressed to me strongly their desire to infuse, if possible, not only more distinctly religious sanctions and motives, but also more distinctly religious teaching, into the methods pursued. Not in America, at any rate, has a belief in the power of Christianity to touch the heart and guide the life ceased to possess men's minds. The problem that vexes the minds of all these enlightened gentlemen—I believe I might say of all far-seeing American educators—is how to infuse more of the influence of religious motive and of the indoctrination of religious truth into the system, without compromising, without surrendering, without breaking it down. And I am afraid that so long as Christians maintain there is no common platform of belief and obligation on

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" and in the limited influence of the Church. When parents shall have been " properly instructed in their duties, and conscientiously strive to discharge " them, we may confidently expect a better state of things " (*Report for* 1864, p. 69). Another Superintendent, admitting that "moral instruction, though " the most important feature in the range of education, is too frequently the " most neglected," adds: "The reason generally assigned for this neglect is " the sectarian prejudices of parents, and is not the result of any disposition on " the part of directors to exclude from the school the moral precepts of the " Bible " (*Ibid.* p. 118). Another says: "This is entirely a voluntary " matter "—(I presume on the part of the school directors)—" and may be " recommended, but not enforced " (*Ibid.* p. 120). Another expresses the opinion that "The kind and effect of moral instruction depend upon the " religious sentiment of the community, and the ability of the teacher to " impart it." And he adds: " Its necessity is acknowledged by all, and a " broad, liberal spirit is beginning to prevail over the county, so that its " essence can be taught without interfering with private sentiment or formal " religious instruction " (*Ibid.* p. 150).

and Rhode Island.

In Rhode Island, "There is no authority in the State by which the reading " of the Bible or praying in school, either at the opening or at the close, can " be commanded and enforced. On the other hand, there can be no compul- " sory exclusion of such reading and praying. The whole matter must be " regulated by the consciences of the teachers and inhabitants of the districts, " and the general consent of the community. . . It is believed to be the " general sentiment of the people of Rhode Island that this matter shall be " left to the conscience of the teacher; and it is expected that if he read the " Bible as an opening exercise, he shall read such parts as are not controverted " or disputed, but such as are purely or chiefly devotional; and if he pray at " the opening of his school, he shall be very brief, and conform as nearly to " the model of the Lord's Prayer as the nature of the case will admit. And " in all this he is bound to respect the conscientious scruples of the parents of " the children before him, as he would have his own conscientious scruples " respected by them in turn; always, of course, taking care that in the means " he uses to show his respect for the consciences of others, he does not violate " the law of his own conscience " (*Acts relating to the Public Schools of Rhode Island*, p. 99).

In the same document, some specimen forms of prayer are given, though not " by any means prescribed, or even recommended, to be used to the exclusion " of any other "; so great is the sensitiveness felt upon this point. Among them, and, indeed, coming first, is the form " allowed by law to be used in the " public schools of (Upper) Canada." This form is for use both at the opening and the close of school. It consists of two collects, followed by the Lord's Prayer. The first collect in the morning is the " Collect for Grace "; the last at the close of the day is the " Collect for Aid against all Perils," from our English Church's daily service of Morning and Evening Prayer respectively.

which they can meet and consent that their children shall be taught; so long as there are keen and jealous tempers, quick to detect the first attempt to lift young hearts to a consciousness of a Father who made, a Saviour who redeemed, a Spirit who sanctifies them, and to brand it as "sectarianism," so long must the American Common School labour under the reproach, however ill deserved, that it shuts out religion from its walls.

Denominationalism impracticable in America.

For, it seems to me, that under the political constitution of the country, and as having to deal with the phenomena of the society which surrounds it, no other system is practicable. With the infinitely greater amount of intellectual activity in the mass of the people—I speak of quantity, not of quality—and with the infinitely greater freedom and greater diversity of religious belief than prevails even among ourselves, a denominational system of schools, such as we manage to work fairly well, though at a considerable disadvantage, pecuniary and other, would be impossible. Sorry as I should be, with all its imperfections, to give up the denominational principle of education, because I believe it to be the best possible for *us, here*, I should consider myself to be tendering a most fatal piece of advice, if, with all its advantages, I recommended its adoption *there*. The safer hope is, that American Christians, less trammelled by articles, confessions, subscriptions, rubrics, formularies, than we Christians of the Old World, may be brought to take larger, broader views than they now do of their common faith; may dismiss from their minds that ever-recurring and unworthy suspicion of sectarianism; may believe that religion may be taught in schools without the aim of making proselytes; and that "all who love the Lord Jesus Christ in "sincerity" may unite in one earnest endeavour to bestow upon their schools the one thing lacking, and permit the morality which they profess to teach and desire to promote, to be built upon the one only sure foundation—the truths, the principles, the sanctions of the Gospel.

Difficulty of estimating the moral results of education.

Nothing is more difficult to estimate than the moral results of a system of education. I do not mean that the general moral condition of a people is harder to calculate than the general amount of their intelligence. Perhaps it is easier: it certainly presents as many phenomena to an inquirer. But the difficulty lies in assigning the effects each to its proper cause. It is almost impossible to say how far the morality of a people is due to their education, and how far to influences outside of their education. If the word "education" is to be limited to "school teaching," it probably would not be very far from the truth to assert that very little is contributed from this source to the service of real morality. And, under the American system, which deals with children in the mass, and to which the class or the grade is the unit; where, therefore, individualization is hardly attempted, and the utmost liberty is given to the expression of independent opinion and thought, the moral training of each separate heart and conscience is proportionately impracticable. So that though "good behaviour"

is one of the points specified in the old Constitution of Massachusetts as of main moment in the education of a child, and to which the teacher's attention is to be specially directed; and though, no doubt those stern old Puritans used the words "good behaviour" in even a stricter sense than William of Wykeham used the word "manners" in his famous motto, "Manners makyth man," yet, as an actual fact, instruction in "good behaviour" in many schools sinks as low as "instruction given to children as to their *manner* "in going into houses, offices, and other places on errands,"* and in no school, perhaps, does it rise higher than the point contemplated in the school-laws of Chicago, where "the pupils are "strictly enjoined to avoid idleness and profanity, falsehood and "deceit, obscene and indecent language, and every wicked and "disgraceful practice, and to conduct themselves in an orderly "and decent manner, both in school and out."†

Character, and morality as a part of character, though largely influenced and biassed by the tone of school-fellows and the efforts of teachers, is, after all, mainly formed in a child by the atmosphere of home; in a youth and in a man by the atmosphere of the world. It is a matter of general regret among Americans, though I did not observe that any steps were being taken to remedy the acknowledged evil, that parental authority over the young is brief, weak, and lessening.‡ Such is the precocious spirit of independence generated by the political institutions of the country and

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* *St. Louis Report for* 1864, p. 70.

† *Rules of Chicago Board of Education*, s. 85. Similarly says a New York County Commissioner: "A more watchful care is being exercised by our "teachers over their pupils in relation to their morals; pupils are not allowed "to indulge in profanity, nor in low, vulgar, or obscene language, but are "required to be gentlemanly and lady-like in their deportment" (*New York Eleventh Report*, p. 227).

Parental authority weak in the United States.

‡ "En Amérique," says De Tocqueville, "la discipline paternelle est fort "lâche" (vol. ii. p. 227). "I believe," says Mr. Philbrick, "the principal "cause of truancy to be intemperance of parents, and lack of parental control." And again, "We found proofs of parents aiding their children in this crime, "and lying to the master when he went to inquire about it" (*Report on Truancy in Boston*, pp. 46, 13). "Of all the dangers which threaten the future "of our country, none, not even the fetid tide of official corruption, is so "fearful as the gradual decrease in our habits of obedience. This is a result "of the 'inalienable right of liberty' which we enjoy so fully, and is shown "in the impaired force of parental influence, a greater disregard of the rights "and comforts of others, and an increasing tendency to evade or defy the "authority of law. Young America is now exuberant in its independence; "but the greatest blessing it can have is to be saved from itself, and to be "taught that liberty, rising above law, destroys its victim; untempered by "humanity, is mere selfishness; and unregulated by law, becomes anarchy" (*Report of Andrew H. Green, President of New York Board of Education, quoted in Wells' Graded School*, p. 171, note). What struck De Tocqueville first 20 years ago, what Mr. Green commented on in 1857, as far as "parental influence" is concerned, is, I am afraid, in no healther condition in 1866. "Young America," say a Massachusetts School Committee, "needs to under-"stand the meaning of that almost obsolete imperative, Obey" (*28th Report, Appendix*, p. 50. See also *the Nineteenth Report of the School Commissioner of Rhode Island*, pp. 15–30).

the general current of social life, that boys and girls of 12 or 14 years of age think themselves quite competent to decide many questions for themselves, and do decide them, on which English boys or girls of 18 or 20 would still feel bound to consult and obey their parents. And, as in England, so in America, the lower you descend in the social strata, the more markedly this tendency exhibits itself. It was piteous and saddening to see,—as I had occasion to see frequently when mothers would come to the office of a Superintendent of schools to excuse or to complain of the truancy of their children—parents helpless to control the wills, and even the caprices, of lads of 11 or 10, or still younger years. It is not a natural nor a normal state of things; and every well-wisher to the great Commonwealth of the United States, every one who would desire to see her equal to the mighty destiny that lies before her, cannot but hope that for so manifest an inversion of a great social law a remedy may soon be found.

Condition of the country in respect of crime.

I do not know that, as far as the statistics of crime are concerned, the United States can boast that they stand on a higher plane of civilization—if, indeed, civilization is to be measured by such statistics at all—than the countries of the Old World. No doubt, in many parts of New England still, and possibly in rural districts everywhere, Daniel Webster's wish has not yet become an illusion, and the "day is still prolonged when families can "sleep with unbarred doors."* There is so little real poverty in such societies, that one main incentive to crime is cut away. But it would be a very false notion of things if one were to imagine that judges of assize find their occupation gone, that gaols are empty, and juvenile delinquency rare. On the contrary there is, at any rate, for the moment, and perhaps due to momentary causes, all over the land, a great crop of crime. I quote an extract from a Cincinnati newspaper of last July. "There is little room "given us to doubt the increase of crime in this country. It is a "perfect epidemic. There is not a day that some shocking out-"rage against humanity does not appear in the public prints. "The variety and novelty of these, not less than the number, afford "the most melancholy testimony to the rapid development of "misdoing as an art, and to the culture and training of the "people in its practice. Murder trials, trials for burglary and "arson, cases of violent abduction, are thronging the public "courts, whilst the accounts of self-destruction which reach us "from every side are truly frightful. In New York city the "returns show a vast addition to last year's record.† In Boston

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* I saw with my own eyes that this was so in Kentucky; but it certainly was due there to the prevalence of simple bucolic habits rather than of any form of advanced civilization, in which matter Kentucky has not made any great progress.

Criminal statistics of New York.

† I extract the following statistics from a little pamphlet, entitled "Walks "about New York," containing some "facts and figures gathered from various "sources by the Secretary of the City Mission." Some of the figures of the volume, as usual in similar publications, range wide; but the following, I presume, are taken from the police records, and are probably accurate :—

" it is the same. From Chicago we have a similar account; and " indeed from all sections, except perhaps from Philadelphia. " Much of this is owing, of course, to the close of the war, and " was to be expected on the breaking up of large armies, and the " dislocation of society incident to the resumption of a peace " footing. But much of it is also owing to the laxity of the " police system, the influx of foreign immigration, the violence of " the times. Peace has its duties as well as war, and one of the " first duties of every one is the restoration of tone to the popular " mind. Once balanced again, and we shall have a reduction of " the criminal docket, but not before. There is brave work ahead " for the legislators and the preachers too."

Juvenile delinquency.

And, with reference to the growth of juvenile depravity consequent upon the relaxation of parental authority, Dr. Hatch, the Superintendent of the State Reform School of Connecticut concludes his Report for 1865 in the following words:—

" That boys are more neglected than formerly is apparent to all. " That they are not restrained and kept at home, that there is more " truancy and vagrancy, and that young boys are now committing " crimes which, a few years ago, it was supposed that only old " and hardened offenders would commit, is well-known to the " courts of justice, officers, and to all whose attention is turned " in that direction." If there be a law in human things, as de-

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" The number of policemen in the city is 1,800 " (to a population of about 800,000). " The annual cost of their support and incidental expenses is " $1,836,120 " (the sum spent by the Board of Education for the same year, 1864, being $1,745,916).

Arrests by the police in 1864 for offences against the person	52,976	
" " " against property -	8,912	
		61,888
Of whom were males, 38,948; females, 22,940 - -		61,888
Of whom were under 15 years of age, 3,152 males; 437 females - - - - - - -		3,589
Of persons arrested, there were born in the United States -	18,199	
" " " in foreign countries -	43,689	
		61,888
" " could read and write - - -	47,192	
" " could not read and write - -	14,046	
" " could read only - - -	650	
		61,888

There have been arrested by the police for crimes of violence of a serious character in 1863 and 1864 respectively as follows:—

	1863.	1864.
For felonious assault - - - -	343	462
Assaults on policemen - - - -	19	35
Attempt at rape - - - -	28	29
Insulting females in the streets - - -	33	88
Murder - - - - - -	79	48
Maiming - - - - -	6	6
Manslaughter - - - - -	1	10
Rape - - - - - -	21	14
Threatening life - - - - -	12	30
Total -	537	742

(*Walks about New York*, p. 8).

sponding tempers are prone to believe, "in pejus ruere," the United States cannot claim exemption from its influence. Democratic institutions have to deal with the same nature of man that troubles monarchies and aristocracies too.

Symptoms of the general tone of social morality.

And in that large range of conduct which, though beyond the scope of public police so long as it keeps itself from becoming a public nuisance, constitutes the body of social morality, without entering into comparisons, there is evidence enough to show that the tone of the United States is not exceptionally high. The amount of profane language that one cannot escape from hearing in railway cars, river steam-boats, hotel bars, and other places of public resort, is quite frightful; and though this garnish of conversation appears to have become rather an unconscious habit than to be a deliberate offence against morality, or even against good manners, and does not extend beyond a certain, and that not a very high, level of society,* its prevalence is deeply to be regretted, both on its own account and on account of the unfavourable impression that it cannot but have on the minds of strangers. Drunkenness, again, and prostitution are the social evils of American cities as well as of the larger English and Scotch towns.† A liquor law, existing in the statute books of all the New England,

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* It is to be heard, however, from the mouths of men with good coats on their backs, and who can afford to frequent the best hotels. The habit of oaths and profane language is common enough in England, but it is confined almost exclusively to the lowest type of working-men; or if it occasionally rises higher, it has at least the prudence to become more reticent, and not to be so careless whether it is heard and noticed as it is in America. Even the presence of women, who generally command such absolute deference there, will not always restrain it.

The deference usually paid throughout America to women, though said to be lessening, is still very remarkable. De Tocqueville has noticed it, "Ils ont un "si grand respect pour leur liberté morale, qu'en leur présence chacun veille "avec soin sur ses discours, de peur qu'elles ne soient forcées d'entendre un "langage qui les blesse. En Amérique, une jeune fille entreprend, seule et "sans crainte, un long voyage" (*Democratie en Amerique*, ii. 239).

† "The chief of police, in his recent able report, calls public attention to the "frightful increase of intemperance in this city. By reference to the public "records it will be seen that there has been a gradual increase of drunkenness "in the city for several years past, much more than keeping pace with the "increase of population; the past year showing a greater number of arrests "for drunkenness than any former year" (*Philbrick's Report on Truancy in Boston*, p. 6). As long ago as 1851 Theodore Parker asserted in his sermon on the "Chief Sins of the People," that "There are three or four hundred "brothels in this city of Boston, and ten or twelve hundred shops for the sale "of rum." In New York, "we have ten thousand grog-shops" (*Walks about New York*, p. 14.) The Police Returns of the City of Providence (population 50,000) for the month of May 1865, showed 239 arrests and 194 commitments, of which 106 were for drunkenness and 24 for "revelling," besides which the police helped home 55 intoxicated persons. The fine for "revelling" is $2 and costs; a common drunkard is sent to gaol for thirty days. For the purposes of comparison—*valeat quantum*—I append the following letter which appeared in the London "Times" newspaper of February 27, 1866:—

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "TIMES."

Sir,—In your impression of Friday the 23d inst., in a paragraph headed "Drunkenness," you put the number of persons proceeded against for drunken-

and many of the Western States, but which no juries or judges can be got to enforce,* cannot prevent the former; while the latter, though less obtrusive to the eye than in the streets of London, by reason of a much more effective system of police,† exists, I was informed on credible authority, to an alarming extent in the larger cities of the Union. New York, though that, from its being the great port of entry for immigrants, is exceptional in its circumstances, is probably as profligate as any city in the world; and Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, and even Boston itself are, if alleged facts be true, no purer than cities among ourselves of similar character and size. It would be absurd, therefore, to expect that education, standing alone, could either cleanse or stem so foul and turbulent a stream, nor could anything be at once more unphilosophical or more unjust than to charge the Amerian school system with consequences which, if it cannot wholly prevent, it certainly must help powerfully to mitigate. That its influence for good might be made more potent than it is by drawing more largely than it ventures to do, upon the sanctions and motives of Christianity, I have already admitted; but, even as the case stands, it would be folly or prejudice to deny that its weight, as a system,

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ness and disorderly conduct, per 1,000 population, in the borough of Wolverhampton at 5·09, On referring to the tables annexed to the report of General Cartwright, the Inspector-General of Police for the Midland district, you will find that the number so proceeded against is returned at 6·84 per 1,000 population. This is an important difference, inasmuch as that, the population of Wolverhampton being 60,858, the paragraph would lead one to suppose that the total number of drunk and disorderlies in that borough for the year was only 309, whereas the actual number was 416, or 6·84 per 1,000, as above quoted.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,
W. R. Young, Superintendent of Police.

Woburn, Bedfordshire, Feb. 24.

Providence and Wolverhampton do not differ widely in populations (50,000 and 60,000 respectively) nor in the character of their populations, Providence being the seat of the great American screw factory and other similar branches of trade. It appears from these two returns that, with ten thousand fewer people, there were arrested by the police for drunkenness in Providence *during one month* nearly one-third of the whole number of persons proceeded against in Wolverhampton for the same offence *during a whole year*. Of course the force of the comparison lies in the relative severity of the two systems of police. Nothing that I saw would lead me to suppose that in this matter the American police are stricter than our own. Unless the month of May is a month exceptionally devoted to "revelling" and disorder, the figures would give a return of 1560 drunkards and disorderlies for the year—(106 + 24 = 130 × 12 = 1,560)—which in a popuiation of 50,000 gives a rate of 31·2 in the thousand, considerably more than four times the Wolverhampton rate.

* See above, p. 40, note *.

Prostitution, how dealt with in New York and other cities.

† Without any system of licensed houses, such as prevails under many European governments, American streets are perfectly free from the *nuisance* of prostitution. Any woman of the town, observed to solicit a passer-by, would immediately be dealt with by the police. It seemed to me a very simple remedy for a very great evil. Prostitution is as much kept out of sight in the streets of New York as in the streets of Paris, and that without any connivance on the part of the municipal authorities. I cannot help thinking that the removal of the opportunity of solicitation must, to a considerable extent, lessen the prevalence of the vice. A man in America must actually go in search of the evil

and apart from the personal character of its administrators, is thrown wholly into the scale of morality and virtue. No one pretends that mere knowledge or cleverness is an antidote to vice, or a preservative from temptation; and yet a quickened intellect may sometimes determine a vacillating conscience to choose "the "good and the right way."

A similitude.

About 30 miles above St. Louis, the destined metropolis of the great American West, as it promised to my eyes to be, the clear, placid, majestic Mississippi is swelled, in depth though not in width, by the impetuous, turbid waters of the Missouri. The latter stream has run the longer course, pours into the united current the more imperious tide, might well aspire to carry onward to the ocean for yet 1,200 miles, past many a seat of human industry, its own name. But no; as though conscious of its guilt, and willing to hide from the eyes of men its share in staining the purity of that rushing flood of waters, it leaves the honour or the reproach of so much power mingled with so much foulness, to its sister stream. So has it sometimes fared with the school and the world. The influences of the two are combined in ways beyond discrimination, in fashioning the character of man. But the "prince of the world" is content with the influence, and cares not for the name: he "transforms himself into an angel of light;" and the evil as well as the good of the combined result is too often represented by those whose shallow philosophy is content with the first apparent cause that comes to hand, as the natural fruit of the school.

Sources of demoralization.

The evil is developed out of circumstances that too well harmonize with its character: out of an exuberant and often rapidly acquired wealth; out of the appliances of luxury, sensuous

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thing to find it. It would be an enormous comfort if some such police system, which cannot involve any practical difficulty, for it seems to be universal in America, were adopted to clear our streets at home.

Libertinism.

Of another form of the evil of licentiousness, the existence of which is attested both by advertisements in newspapers and by the extent to which (as I was informed) practitioners in the most abominable of all surgical arts exist and thrive in the greater cities, I will not venture to speak, because I should be speaking from hearsay reports, which, in such matters, are apt to be exaggerated. The class of advertisements, however, to which I have referred is considerably more numerous even than what meets the eye in England, and much more open in their announcements, and must indicate the presence of much deep-seated evil. De Tocqueville has what seems to me a striking remark on this subject: "Ce qui met en danger la société, ce n'est pas la "grande corruption chez quelques-uns; c'est le relâchement de tous. Aux "yeux du législateur, la prostitution est bien moins à redouter que la galan-"terie" (vol. ii. p. 233). The great and rapid growth of wealth and luxury makes this general 'relâchement' a thing to be apprehended in America. Not without reason, we are under the same alarm in England. The Board of State Charities in Massachusetts notices, also, "the alarming increase of bastardy." "In one State almshouse alone, there were 40 admissions or births of this "class in the first quarter of 1864, and 24 in the first 28 days of July last. "The result is a large class of children growing up, owned by nobody, and for "whom nobody will be responsible, to become the future paupers and criminals "of the Commonwealth" (*Report for* 1865, p. 434).

(if not sensual), rather than refined, with which such wealth loves to surround itself; out of the innate craving of Americans for movement, change, excitement, and their intolerance of quietude, monotony, and the "fallentis semita vitæ;" partly also out of a desire to redress the balance of their intense pursuit of gain; not a little, perhaps, out of the very physical influences, so stimulating, of their climate.* Certainly, all these circumstances have to be considered before any absolute or comparative estimate of American morality can be formed. I mention them only to prevent results, which are patent enough to the eye of the most cursory observer, which enemies enumerate with ungenerous pleasure, and which even friends must confess and regret to see, from being charged to a wrong account, and laid indiscriminately at the door of the school.

Effects of mixed schools.

There is one point, however, directly connected with the American school-system and their general theory of education, of the effects of which I entertain grave doubts—I refer to the effects on the formation of individual character, and the general social influences, of mixed schools,† and particularly of the theory and practice adopted in America on the subject of the education of girls. High schools, where the ages of the pupils vary from 14 to 18, are generally mixed schools,‡ and the course of training prescribed both for male and female minds is almost step by step the same.§ I know what De Tocqueville has said in justification of this theory, and how highly he estimates its practical results. I remember his memorable tribute—"If I were asked to what "cause I would principally attribute the singular prosperity and "growing force of this people I would answer 'To the superiority "of their women.'"‖ I, too, am not blind, I trust, to the merits nor to the high endowments of American women. I recognize and appreciate their force of character, their intellectual vigour,

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"Rowdyism."

* See quotation from Dr. Ray above, p. 114, note *. This is most likely the secret cause of that peculiar American disease known as "rowdyism." A Pennsylvanian superintendent of schools notices, as prevailing in his district, "a lack in the development of the spirit of kindness, courtesy, and respect, "and an increase in that disposition which manifests itself in mischievous, "annoying, and rowdyish pranks" (*Report for* 1864, p. 197). Symptoms akin to these have manifested themselves in human nature, at least ever since the time when 'Jeshurun waxed fat, and kicked.' 'Τίκτει τοι κόρος ὕβριν,' said the old gnomic poet, Theognis.

† I would be understood to limit my observations to mixed schools of the higher grades, the pupils in which range in age from 14 to 18 years; though the better-to-do class of parents might (and in some instances, as at Philadelphia, do) object to mixed primary schools for their daughters, on the ground that the large majority of the children attending them come from poor, coarse homes.

‡ Boston and Philadelphia are exceptions; and at New York there is no high school for girls yet.

§ See above, p. 140.

‖ "Si . . . . l'on me demandait à quoi je pense qu'il faille principalement attribuer la prospérité singulière et la force croissante de ce peuple, je répondrais que c'est la supériorité de ses femmes" (*Démocratie en Amérique*, ii., p. 240).

their capacity for affairs, their high spirit, their courage, their patriotism. The Americans may be right in judging, as De Tocqueville says they do judge, that "the mind of a woman is as "capable as the mind of a man to discover naked truth, and her "heart as firm to follow it."* And so they have made the mental training, indeed the whole school-culture, of boys and girls the same. One of the most recently established educational institutions, the fruit of the munificence of an individual citizen, has for its express and avowed object to accomplish for young women what the colleges and universities are accomplishing for young men.†

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* "Ils jugent que son esprit est aussi capable que celui de l'homme de découvrir la vérité toute nue, et son cœur assez ferme pour la suivre" (*Ibid.* ii., 239).

† I refer to Vassar Female College, just established at Poughkeepsie, New York, which was to be opened on 14th September 1865. As this institution may be taken as representing the most advanced as well as the most recent views entertained in America on the subject of female education, I quote the following description of it from the prospectus: Vassar Female College.

"The building is in the Norman style; brick, with stone trimmings, five stories high, including the basement and the attic. The length of the front, including the wings, is nearly 500 feet; the centre is 171 feet deep. Under one roof are found a chapel, a library and art-gallery, a cabinet of minerals, a museum of natural history, lecture and recitation rooms, the president's house, two double houses for four or eight professors, apartments for lady teachers, matron, and nurse, an infirmary, waterclosets, and bath-rooms, and, finally, sleeping-rooms, with parlours adjoining, for 250 young ladies. Each young lady has her own separate bedroom, with a single bed; and three of these rooms open into a larger, which is the common parlour or studying room of these three students. The edifice is nearly fire-proof, heated by steam, lighted with gas, well ventilated, and supplied with abundance of water. An astronomical observatory is in process of erection, about 200 feet north-east of the college. This is to be supplied with an equatorial telescope of 12⅝ inches aperture and 17 feet long; a transit instrument, to be used also as a prime vertical, a clock, chronograph, &c. Arrangement of buildings.

"In arranging a course of study, instead of following the usual college curriculum of four years, it is proposed to introduce the university system. By this plan the various branches of knowledge are classified, and the pupils study them by subjects. Except for younger pupils text-books are discarded, and the professors give instruction by lectures. Similar or collateral branches are combined into distinct departments or schools, which are practically independent of one another. The student selects whichever of the schools her talents, tastes, inclinations, pecuniary circumstances, or objects in life may lead her to prefer; and whenever the studies of a school have been mastered, as proved by a rigid examination, a testimonial to that effect is given. When a specified number of testimonials have been obtained, the student is entitled to a diploma as a graduate of the college. Time is not regarded in the matter. Programme of study.

"It is designed to arrange the branches to be taught under nine schools:

1. The School of Religion and Morals.
2. The School of Psychology, including Mental Philosophy and Æsthetics.
3. The School of History and Political Economy.
4. The School of Languages and their Literature.
5. The School of Natural History.
6. The School of the Physical Sciences.
7. The School of Mathematics.

Capacity of females.

Nor does the female mind (whatever may be thought of the female body) appear unequal to bear the burden thus put upon it. Some of the best mathematical teachers are women; some of the best mathematical students are girls. Young ladies read Virgil and Cicero, Xenophon and Homer, as well (in every sense) as young gentlemen. In mixed high schools the number of female students generally preponderates, and they are found in examinations to carry off the largest proportion of prizes.* In schools where I heard the two sexes taught or catechized together I myself should have awarded to the girls the palm for quickness of perception and precision of reply. In no department of study which they pursued together did they not seem to me, as compared with their male competitors, fully competent to hold their own. Very high authorities, founding themselves upon experience, maintain, without hesitation or reserve, the advantages of the system as it stands. That it has certain very manifest advantages I am not prepared to deny; but as all results are but a balance of opposites, there are certain as manifest disadvantages which have to be reckoned and considered too. And there are high authorities on the other side. The great Athenian statesman, the great Christian teacher, appear to have formed different conceptions of a woman's proper sphere in life; and it is probable, therefore, that they would have formed different conceptions of the proper training of a girl.† Even the French

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8. The School of the Art and Philosophy of Education.
9. The School of Art, including Music, Drawing, Painting, Sculpture, Architecture, Landscape-gardening, &c.

Annual cost.

"The charges per annum for board, with instruction in all branches required for a diploma, will not exceed $250. All students will reside in the college, finding there a pleasant home, which shall secure to them the safety, privacy, and purity which they enjoy under the parental roof, and where the cultivation of true refinement in feeling, taste, and manners, and the development of all womanly graces and virtues, will be objects of sleepless solicitude.

Terms and age of admission.

"Candidates for admission into the junior class of any school must have completed their 12th year, and will be examined in reading, spelling, writing, the simplest elements of geometry, mental arithmetic, written arithmetic to interest including fractions, geography, and the rudiments of the English or the Latin grammar. Candidates for the senior class in any school must pass an examination in all the studies of the junior class in that school" (*New York Regent's 77th Report*, pp. 140-142).

* *See above*, p. 140.

Opinions of Pericles and of St. Paul.

† *Cf. Periclem, apud Thucyd.* ii. 45. "εἰ δέ με δεῖ καὶ γυναικείας τι ἀρετῆς "μνησθῆναι, βραχείᾳ παραινέσει ἅπαν σημανῶ. τῆς τε γὰρ ὑπαρχούσης φύσεως μὴ χείροσι "γενέσθαι ὑμῖν μεγάλη ἡ δόξα, καὶ ἧς ἂν ἐπ' ἐλάχιστον ἀρετῆς πέρι ἢ ψόγου ἐν τοῖς "ἄρσεσι κλέος ᾖ." "By τῆς ὑπαρχούσης φύσεως it seems to be implied that women "were not called upon to be for ever striving to surpass one another and "themselves by some extraordinary display of heroism; it was their praise "rather to live up to the natural excellence of their sex, its modesty and "affectionateness, rather than to aspire to go beyond it" (*Arnold ad locum*). I have no doubt that Pericles has in his mind here the same contrast between Athenian and Spartan ideas and manners which runs throughout the oration.

St. Paul's general view may be collected from such passages as 1 Cor. xi. 3-16; xiv. 34, 35; 1 Tim. ii. 9-12; Titus ii. 3-5. His recommendation to young women to be "οἰκουρούς" "keepers at home," is substantially the same

philosophical thinker admits that "such an education is not "without danger, and has a tendency to produce moral and cold "women rather than tender and amiable wives." * And it may well be doubted whether He, who "at the beginning made them "male and female," did not also mark out for them in His purposes different, though parallel, paths through all their lives.

American ideal of women different from ours.

The Americans, however, pursue their course apparently without mistrust, without anxiety. I heard not a hint that any change in their system, as it regards females, is contemplated.† I conclude, therefore, that they see no reason to doubt its efficacy or its expediency. Their conception of woman's duties, and their ideal of womanly perfection, are, probably, different from ours. To them the Roman matron of the old Republic is, perhaps, the type of female excellence; to them self-reliance, fearlessness, decision, energy, promptitude, are perhaps the highest female qualities. To us the softer graces are more attractive than the sterner virtues; our object is to train women, before anything and everything besides, for the duties of the home; we care less in them for vigorous intellects and firm purposes, and more for tastes which domesticate and accomplishments which charm. But whichever system of culture be accepted as right, it is doing no more than justice to the American method to say that the end at which I have supposed it to aim, it appears to achieve. †

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as the last clause of the counsel of Pericles; and there is no essential difference in the other reading—*διεσυργούς*—which some consider to have most authority in its favour.

* Quoted below, note ‡.

† Mr. Commissioner White of Ohio rejoices that "with the manifest change "in public sentiment respecting the value and importance of female education, "a demand for thorough and solid instruction is awakened. The education "of woman," he says, "must prepare her for the grave duties of life, as well "as to grace a drawing room" (*11th Ohio Report*, p. 48). No one can dispute this maxim; the only question would be what is the education most suitable to the discharge of those duties.

Different views entertained by Americans themselves.

Perhaps the language in the text is a little too unqualified, for see the quotation from Mr. Randall of New York's Report, above, p. 125, note *. Dr. Woolworth of Albany, New York, the accomplished Secretary of the Board of Regents, appeared to me to entertain very sensible notions on this subject. He doubted what the increasing number of scientifically-educated women will find to do, unless the recognized sphere of woman's vocation is enlarged, and the professions are occupied by her. At present the medical profession is the only one of those so-called liberal, into which she has penetrated (if we except an isolated case, here and there, of a recognized female teacher of a Christian congregation), and there is a considerable number of female physicians, who bear and are addressed by the title of "Doctor," practising in the States. I was even told, from the (so stated) actual knowledge of my informant, though the statement seems almost incredible, that one of these medical ladies claimed, as a matter of right, to be admitted to practise as an army surgeon! I do not believe that the spectacle has yet been seen of a female barrister; but the success of Miss Anna Dickenson is attracting many to the career of lecturers. But the great opening for well-educated women in America, at least for such as have not independent means, is as teachers.

DeTocqueville on the education of girls in

‡ De Tocqueville's views of the "Education of Girls in the United States" are so acute and (as they seem to me) so true, that I shall venture to transfer them to this note:—

Other influences affecting

In estimating, however, the aggregate result of the various influences which combine to form the character and develop the

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the United States.

" Il n'y a jamais eu de sociétés libres sans mœurs, et c'est la femme qui fait les mœurs. . . Chez presque toutes les nations Protestantes, les jeunes filles sont infiniment plus maîtresses de leurs actions que chez les peuples Catholiques. . . Aux États-Unis, les doctrines du Protestantisme viennent se combiner avec une constitution très-libre, et un état social très-démocratique, et nulle part la jeune fille n'est plus promptement ni plus complètement livrée à elle-même. Longtemps avant que la jeune Américaine ait atteint l'âge nubile, on commence à l'affranchir peu à peu de la tutelle maternelle; elle n'est point entièrement sortie de l'enfance que déjà elle pense pour elle-même, parle librement, et agit seule; devant elle est exposé sans cesse le grand tableau du monde; loin de chercher à lui en dérober la vue, on le découvre chaque jour de plus en plus à ses regards; et on lui apprend à le considérer d'un œil ferme et tranquille. Ainsi, les vices et les périls que la société présente, ne tardent pas à lui être révélés; elle les voit clairement, les juge sans illusion, et les affronte sans crainte; car elle est pleine de confiance dans ses forces, et sa confiance semble partagée par tous ceux qui l'environnent.

" Il ne faut donc presque jamais s'attendre à rencontrer chez la jeune fille d'Amérique cette candeur virginale au milieu des naissants désirs, non plus que ces graces naïves et ingenues qui accompagnent d'ordinaire chez l'Européenne le passage de l'enfance à la jeunesse. Il est rare que l'Américaine quel que soit son âge, montre une timidité et une ignorance puériles. . . Si elle ne se livre pas au mal, du moinselle le connait; elle a des mœurs pures plutôt qu'un esprit chaste.

" J'ai souvent été surpris et presque effrayé en voyant la dextérité singulière et l'heureuse audace avex lesquelles ces jeunes filles d'Amérique savaient conduire leurs pensées et leurs paroles au milieu des écueils d'une conversation enjouée; un philosophe aurait bronché cent fois sur l'étroit chemin qu'elles parcouraient sans accidents et sans peine.

" Il est facile, en effet, de reconnâitre que, au milieu même de l'indépendance de sa première jeunesse, l'Américaine ne cesse jamais entièrement être maîtresse d'elle-même. Elle jouit de tous les plaisirs permis sans s'abandonner à aucun d'eux, et sa raison ne lâche point les rênes, quoiqu'elle semble souvent les laisser flotter.

" En France, où nous mêlons encore d'une si étrange manière, dans nos opinions et dans nos goûts, dés debris de tous les âges, il nous arrive souvent de donner aux femmes une éducation timide, retirée, et presque claustrale, comme au temps de l'aristocratie, et nous les abandonnons ensuite tout à coup, sans guide et sans secours au milieu des désordres inséparables d'une société démocratique. Les Américains sont mieux d'accord avec eux-mêmes. Ils ont vu que, au sein d'une démocratie, l'indépendance individuelle ne pouvait manquer d'être très-grande, la jeunesse hâtive, les goûts mal contenus, la coutume changeante, l'opinion publique souvent incertaine on impuissante, l'autorité paternelle faible, et le pouvoir marital contesté. Dans cet état de choses, ils ont jugé qu'il y avait peu de chances de pouvoir comprimer chez la femme les passions les plus tyranniques du cœur humain, et qu'il était plus sûr de lui enseigner l'art de les combattre elle-même. Comme ils ne pouvaient empêcher que sa vertu ne fût souvent en péril, ils ont voulu qu'elle sût la défendre, et ils ont plus compté sur le libre effort de sa volonté que sur des barrières ébranlées ou détruites. Au lieu de la tenir dans la défiance d'elle-même, ils cherchent donc sans cesse à accrôitre sa confiance en ses propres forces. N'ayant ni la possibilité ni le désir de maintenir la jeune fille dans une perpétuelle et complète ignorance, ils se sont hâtés de lui donner une connaissance précoce de toutes choses. Loin de lui cacher les corruptions du monde, ils ont voulu qu'elle les vît dès l'abord, et qu'elle s'exerçât d'elle-même à les fuir, et ils ont mieux aimé garantir son honnêteté que de trop respecter son innocence. . . .

" Je sais qu'une pareille éducation n'est pas sans danger; je n'ignore non plus qu'elle tend à developper le jugement aux dépens de l'imagination, et à

intellect of the American people, we must let our eyes range beyond the walls of the school. The agency of the press is not less direct nor less potent. The Americans are emphatically a reading people. I do not mean that, taken in the mass, their literary attainments are very varied or very profound. In the higher ranges of society, no doubt, there are men and women to be met with as plentifully as in the best literary circles at home, whose acquaintance with the noblest products of modern thought and research, and (though not so frequently) of ancient thought too, is at once deep and broad. And, even in rural townships and district libraries, though, as with us, the lighter literature is most in vogue, yet the shelves on which repose the massive volumes of standard authors are ever and anon disturbed by searchers after knowledge whom one would little expect to be attracted there.* But these are, perhaps, exceptional cases; and what more than anything else, characterizes the Americans as a reading people is their avidity for news. To an American his morning journal is almost as indispensable as his morning meal. He eats his breakfast with his eyes all the while fixed upon his newspaper. He is admirably and accurately "posted up" (to use his own phrase) in current events, or at least in his newspaper's version of current events. If he does not exercise a very independent opinion in measuring the relative importance of the several facts, he knows the alleged facts themselves. And to satisfy this appetite, thus unusually voracious, food is abundantly supplied. The number

national character.

1. The press.

American avidity for news.

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faire des femmes honnêtes et froides plutôt que des épouses tendres et d'aimables compagnes de l'homme. Si la société en est plus tranquille et mieux réglée, la vie privée en a souvent moins de charmes. Mais ce sont là des maux secondaires, qu'un intérêt plus grand doit faire braver. Parvenus au point où nous sommes, il ne nous est permis de faire un choix; il faut une éducation démocratique pour garantir la femme des périls dont les institutions et les mœurs de la démocratie l'environnent." (Vol. ii. pp. 222–225.)

If we "have no choice" we must acquiesce in what is inevitable. But I should have supposed, though I don't think we have quite hit it in England, that there was a mean between the "cloistral education" of France and the "democratic education" of the United States. I quite feel that there is an indefinable something that makes a difference between the relationship of man and wife in America and the relationship of man and wife in England. I do not mean that there is more mutual affection or more mutual confidence, but there is a different *tone* in the intercourse. I think the secret of the difference lies in this, that the American husband has more respect for his wife's *mind*.

* The following anecdote, which was told me by one of the parties to the circumstances, is amusing and typical. A Harvard student, home for a few days' vacation, wished to finish the third volume of "Motley's History of the Dutch Republic." Going in search of it to the township library—the scene lies in Massachusetts—he finds it in use; and pursuing the inquiry further, learns from the register that it has been taken out by his mother's washerwoman. He goes to the woman's house, sees her, asks her, "Is she 'through' "with the book? or, if not, can she spare it to him for just two days?" "Well," said the good housewife, "I can't just do that, for I am mightily "taken with the book; but I'll tell you what I will do; I'll just put off my "ironing till to-morrow afternoon, finish the book in the morning, and then "I'll send it to you."

of daily newspapers published in the States is quite extraordinary. It would be rare to find, at any rate in the Northern States, a city of 10,000 people without its one, probably its two or three, daily newspapers. Even in so out-of-the-way a place as Ottawa in Canada, with less than 15,000 inhabitants, and before it had become the seat of government, there were printed in September last three daily journals, with their bi-weekly, or tri-weekly issues besides. When I told Americans that we had towns in England by the score, with 20,000 or 30,000 inhabitants, who were still content to live on nothing better than weekly newspaper fare, as far as the local supply is concerned, they seemed scarcely to credit me.

Everybody reads these papers. Hackney coachmen, waiting for a fare; storekeepers, in the interval between the exit of one customer and the entrance of another; travellers by steam boats and in railway cars of every grade; everybody, everywhere seems to have a paper in his pocket or his hands, with which to beguile a vacant hour. Every hotel has its newsvendor who distributes hundreds of copies of the more popular journals in the day. As necessary a part of the equipage of a railway train as the conductor or the breaksman, is the boy who traverses the whole length of the cars every half hour, now with newspapers, now with periodicals, now with yellow-covered novels.* The effect of this, I won't say in disciplining or strengthening, but at any rate in quickening, the intelligence and stimulating the curiosity of the people is marvellous.

2. Lectures.

Another influence operating in the same direction is that of lectures and lecturers, The lecture is quite an "institution" in America, the *métier* of a lecturer quite a trade, and if an effective lecturer, a very profitable trade. Miss Anna Dickenson is said to receive $100 a lecture, the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher as much or even more, and the same lecture may be repeated a hundred times in different places during the season. A series of lectures of a high class on topics of literary or philosophical interest, called the "Lowell Institute," are delivered in Boston every winter, in which the services of the most eminent scholars in America are engaged, and which attract large audiences. Even country townships do not like to seem behindhand, and in many a Massachusetts and New England village, winter courses of lectures are organized, the expenses of which are defrayed partly by local

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Railway book-agents.

* Mr. Anthony Trollope has described this system of the publishing trade which is really a nuisance to the traveller more intent upon observing scenery than anxious to try his eyes with small print in a jolting railway car, with equal truth and humour. (See his *North America*, i. p. 421.)

There is an interesting chapter in De Tocqueville on the influence of "journalism" in the United States, which he attributes to the extraordinary "fractionnement du pouvoir administratif," and the consequent formation of small local associations, each with its own interests and policy (vol. ii. pp. 125-129).

subscription, and partly by money taken at the doors, which are a means of generating a sort of intellectual atmosphere, and of bringing farmers and storekeepers and mechanics face to face with some of their most distinguished living countrymen. In Massachusetts there is a special officer, called the Agent of the Board of Education, whose business it is to traverse the country, give lectures, and take every means practicable to awaken an interest in education; and in Rhode Island, "a sum not exceeding $500 is annually appropriated for providing suitable lectures and addresses in the several districts upon the subject of education and the best modes of teaching and improving the schools."* These lectures, however, are more distinctly parts of the general school system; the others are extraneous but still convergent influences That large accessions of knowledge are acquired through this instrumentality is not likely; but it must be a powerful quickener of smartness and intelligence.

3. Political and public life.

Similar is the effect of the constantly recurring part that each citizen has to play in the great and exciting game of politics. With all offices elective, and those offices infinitely multiplied, and for each a keen competition arising, and everything being done through the medium of caucuses, conventions, and other partisan agencies, to intensify excitement to the utmost, the mind of the American citizen who suffers himself to be drawn into the vortex of politics—and almost all *are* drawn into it—is subjected to the action of what is perhaps the strongest of all intellectual stimulants, calling all the powers and sympathies of his quick, versatile, impulsive nature into energetic play. The calm, contemplative life, in which, to the eye of the old Greek philosopher, seemed to lie the secret of the highest human happiness, has no charms for the American citizen. He is emphatically a man of action, and of intense action. To him the idea of living apart from the great world, its concerns, its interests, even its strifes, would be simply intolerable. Men hardly ever seem to dream of the Elysium, as hard-worked Englishmen picture it to themselves, of retirement. To them life is action, adventure, enterprise, speculation to the

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* *Act, relating to the Public Schools of Rhode Island*, tit. xiii. ch. 69, s. 3. Mr. Northrop, the Agent in Massachusetts, thus describes one of his days' work:—"At an early hour he meets the school committee, and after conferring "on the general condition of the schools, and listening, it may be, to local details "or special difficulties, starts with them at nine o'clock, and visits and addresses "eight or ten schools in the morning. In the afternoon, he addresses the "assembled teachers and children and friends of schools for two or three hours, "having only a brief recess at the close of each hour, and in the evening gives "a popular lecture to an audience still containing many children as well as their "parents and teachers, such an audience as can only be held by animation of "manner, and variety as well as vigour of thought and illustration, the topics of "discussion being suggested by the teachers, or the committee, or by his own "observation in the schools. The recesses and other intervals of the day are "occupied by the various practical questions of parents, teachers, or the committee, or lively social converse" (*Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 45). After such a day Mr. Northrop must be very glad, I imagine, when bed time arrives.

An educationist's day's work in Massachusetts.

end. That it is so, is one of the very causes of their greatness. All is movement, as with the nation so with the individual man. And it is easy to see what a mighty lever of the popular intelligence is here.*

Indeed, one of the phenomena that most forcibly impressed me as I watched the workings of society in the United States, was the perfect harmoniousness and congruity of all their institutions and national characteristics. They all seem as though animated by one spirit, they all point the same way. As in the physical so here in the social world, action and reaction are equal. American schools are at once the product, and again the producers of American life, American character, and American ideas. They are continually being remodelled, sometimes in very important features, more frequently in subordinate detail, in order to fit into that life and reflect those ideas more perfectly. Finality is no article of an American's creed. He is a believer, to an unlimited extent, in progress. He is delighted to welcome every "new thing," because he fancies that he sees in it the germs of

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De Tocqueville on the action of the jury,

* Thus De Tocqueville speaks of the institution of the jury:—"Le jury sert incroyablement à former le jugement et à augmenter les lumières naturelles du peuple. . . On doit le considérer comme une école gratuite et toujours ouverte, où chaque juré vient s'instruire de ses droits, où il entre en communication journalière avec les membres les plus instruits et les plus éclairés des classes élevées, où les lois lui sont enseignées d'une manière pratique, et sont mises à la portée de son intelligence par les efforts des avocats, les avis du juge, et les passions mêmes des partis. Je pense qu'il faut principalement attribuer l'intelligence pratique et le bon sens politique des Américains au long usage qu'ils ont fait du jury en matière civile." (*Démocratie en Amérique*, vol. i. p 331.)

and of political life.

So, again, of the action of political life: "Je suis loin de croire qu'il suffise "d'apprendre aux hommes à lire et à écrire pour en faire aussitôt des citoyens. "Les véritables lumières naissent principalement de l'expérience, et si l'on "n'avait pas habitué peu à peu les Américains à se gouverner eux-mêmes, les "connaissances littéraires qu'ils possèdent ne leur seraient point aujourd'hui "d'un grand sécours pour y réussir. . . . N'amenez pas l'Americain à parler "de l'Europe: il montrera d'ordinaire une grande presomption, et un assez "sot orgueil. Il se contentera de ces idées générales et indéfinies qui, dans tous "les pays, sont d'un si grand sécours aux ignorants. Mais interrogez-le sur "son pays, et vous verrez se dissiper tout à coup le nuage qui enveloppait son "intelligence; son langage deviendra clair, net, et precis, comme sa pensée. "Il vous apprendra quels sont ses droits, et de quels moyens il doit se servir "pour les exercer; il saura suivant quels usages se mène le monde politique. "Vous apercevrez que les règles de l'administration lui sont connues, et qu'il "s'est rendu familier le mécanisme des lois. L'habitant des États-Unis n'a "pas puisé dans les livres ces connaissances pratiques et ces notions positives; "son éducation littéraire a pu le preparer à les recevoir, mais ne les lui a point "fournies. C'est en participant à la législation, que l'Américain apprend à "connaître les lois; c'est en gouvernant qu'il s'instruit des formes du gou"vernement. Le grand œuvre de la société s'accomplit chaque jour sous ses "yeux, et, pour ainsi dire, dans ses mains. Aux États-Unis l'ensemble de "l'éducation des hommes est dirigé vers la politique; en Europe son but "principal est de préparer à la vie privée. En Europe, nous faisons souvent "entrer les idées et les habitudes de l'existence privée dans la vie publique: . . "ce sont, au contraire, les habitudes de la vie publique que les Américains "transportent presque toujours dans la vie privée. Chez eux, l'idée du jury "se découvre parmi les jeux de l'école, et l'on retrouve les formes parlemen"taires jusque dans l'ordre du banquet" (*Ibid.* vol. i. pp. 369, 370).

possible future improvement. In no country in the world is there such a field for the inventor or the projector.* "Stare super "antiquas vias," is an accepted maxim of the old world, not of the new. In no home of civilization is the truth so energetically believed and acted on, that "not to advance is to recede." In no country with which I am acquainted is the development of all its resources so rapid, so contemporaneous, so universal. If the foundations are not always laid as solidly as a "wise master-builder" might desire, yet every day exhibits more and more of the ample proportions of the superstructure to the beholder's eye. The moment a want is felt it is supplied; the moment an idea is conceived it becomes a fact. Practice treads incessantly on the heels of theory. To the universal movement thus generated, and acting upon natures peculiarly susceptible of its influences, I attribute the remarkable intelligence and versatility of the American people, even more than to their love of reading, or to their appetite for lectures, or to the excellence (which, after all, is but partial) of their schools.

The future of the system.

An interesting problem is the future of this grand system of schools. To me, gathering together and reflecting upon the phenomena which I observed, this future seems a little uncertain. I do not mean that the system is breaking down, or likely to break down, or that I could trace in it any symptoms of decrepitude or decay. And yet I judge from the passionate advocacy of its supporters, and the earnestness with which, in report upon report of its progress, its claims upon all true patriots are urged, that some misgiving is felt as to the firmness of its position, and I could myself discern the operation of some not inconsiderable influences that have a tendency to undermine it. The clouds, as yet, may be no larger than a man's hand, mere specks at different edges of the horizon; but they are rising, and if they mass themselves together there may come a storm. The influences I speak of are chiefly these:—I have already illustrated each of them abundantly in the course of this report, and all I shall do here will be simply to enumerate them.

Unfavourable influences.

First, I set down the apathy of the large classes of society, the highest and lowest, who do not use the system, or only partially use it, and are too short-sighted to see how they are benefited by it.†

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* I am surprised to find De Tocqueville saying, "On y trouve de bons ouvriers, et *peu d'inventeurs.*" I should have thought that the ἀλφηστὴς ἀνήρ of the nineteenth century was, emphatically, the Yankee. He admits, however, that "en Amérique, on *applique* avec sagacité les inventions de l'Europe" (vol. i. p. 366).

† There is an able argument, though, perhaps, rather too subtle for ordinary minds, and too long to quote, in Professor Taylor Lewis's essay on a "Liberal Education," printed in the *Appendix to the 77th Report of the New York Board of Regents*, pp. 28–31. He argues that the higher educational institutions are "for all," in the sense both of "mediate influence" and of the "universality of "the offer." He maintains that "a portion educated for the sake of the "many," however "undemocratic" it may sound, however much it may seem

Second, the inadequate appreciation of its benefits even by those who do use it, as shown by the indifference of parents, the prevalence of the notion that "the cheapest teacher is the best," the complaints that the education offered is not suited to the after-life of the scholar, &c.

Third, the admitted increase, in spite of all the seeming attractions of the system, of the twin evils, absenteeism and truancy.

Fourth, the cost of the system, which is becoming heavier year by year, and looks formidable in the aggregate; the burden of which will be more oppressively felt as the number of those increases whose direct enjoyment of its advantages is in an inverse ratio to the money they contribute to its support.

Fifth, the growing feeling that more distinctly religious teaching is required, and that even the interests of morality are imperfectly attended to.

Sixth, the attitude and intentions of the Roman Catholic hierarchy, silently and almost sullenly acquiescing in the system, but radically dissatisfied with it, and watching for the opportunity to substitute their own cherished system of separate schools.

Seventh, the very lukewarm support that it receives from the clergy of any denomination, and the languid way in which its claims on support and sympathy are rested on the higher motives of Christian duty.

And, eighth and last, the growth of wealth creating a plusiocracy, if not an aristocracy, to whom the idea of "common schools" will be as distasteful as all levelling ideas ordinarily are.*

Of all these influences I could perceive traces, more or less distinct, in the general current of public opinion in America; nor is it an extravagant, nor even an unkind anticipation, which apprehends that even the essential principles of the system, if not absolutely endangered, at any rate are likely to be seriously

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to be "at war with the genius of American institutions," is the true policy of any people and of any institutions, "to prevent knowledge from becoming "superficial in its tendency to popularization, and thus to make it actually "more available to practical ends and the true well-being of society than "could be done by any futile attempts to impart the same knowledge, as a "*right*, to all."

Position of the bar in America.

* "En Amérique," says De Tocqueville, "il n'y a point de nobles ni de "littérateurs, et le peuple se défie des riches. Les légistes forment donc la "classe politique supérieure, et la portion la plus intellectuelle de la société "... Si l'on me demandait où je place l'aristocratie Américaine, je répondrais "sans hésiter que ce n'est point parmi les riches, qui n'ont aucun lien "commun qui les rassemble. L'aristocratie Américaine est au banc des "avocats, et sur le siége des juges" (vol. i, p. 324). I take it, this opinion is less true now than when it was first uttered. Things and feelings have changed. A literary class is not unknown now in the United States; and while admitting still the intellectual superiority of the American bar, I doubt if they possess by virtue of it wide political influence; and admitting also that wealth, as such, still places its possessor in a somewhat invidious position in the eyes of his countrymen, it must at the same time be allowed that it is creating an increasingly numerous class who do not and will not use the common school.

affected by them. I confess to a doubt whether in the course of another quarter of a century all will go as smoothly with the common schools of America as it has gone for the last 25 years; whether, like many another ancient institution, they may not be put upon their trial, and even forced to yield to the restless, reconstructing tendencies of the age.

Difficulties in the way of common schools in England.

There are two great difficulties in the way of our adopting a common-school system in England. In America, as we have seen, such a system is based upon a theory of social equality, which seems to suppose not only an equality of rights but an equality of conditions, and a theory of religious freedom which fancies itself obliged, as by a necessary corollary, to exclude religious teaching. In England there are both sharper lines of class distinction and sharper tones of class feeling.* The system, as remarked, is more suitable to a community where wealth, the great modern creator of social differences, is equably than where it is unequably distributed. And if there is one sentiment more than another upon which all practical educators in England, whether churchmen or dissenters, are agreed, it is that education ought to be religious—meaning by the term not merely that it ought to awaken religious emotions, but that it ought to teach a religious creed; and how to do that without infringing the rights of conscience or introducing the elements of sectarianism is one of the unsolved problems of the day.

Not free from difficulty even in America.

Even in America the system, with all its efficiency, labours under almost every one of the difficulties that beset the question of national education at home. Its benefits are unequally diffused, the richest neighbourhoods get most of them, the poorest least. Local managers are found frequently to be under the influence of narrow and illiberal views. Teachers are both inadequately remunerated and imperfectly qualified. In the cities there are great masses of untaught; everywhere attendance is irregular, and the labour market competes, and triumphs in the competition, with the school. Yet, notwithstanding these hindrances, and if not accomplishing all of which it is theoretically capable, if lacking some elements which we justly deem primary, and of which Americans themselves feel and regret the loss, it is still contributing powerfully to the development of a nation of which it is no flattery or exaggeration to say that it is, if not the most *highly* educated, yet certainly the most *generally* educated and intelligent people on the earth.†

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* "L'Angleterre de nos jours, réunit-elle dans son sein tout ce que la fortune a de plus extrême" (*De Tocqueville*, i. 282).

† So, too, De Tocqueville calls the United States "le pays de nos jours en "même temps le plus éclairé et le plus libre" (vol. i. p. 352). And he gives much the same measure that I have ventured to do of their intelligence. "Celui," he says, "qui veut juger quel est l'état des lumières parmi les "Anglo-Americains est exposé à voir le même objêt sous deux differents "aspects. S'il ne fait attention qu'aux savants, il s'étonnera de leur petit "nombre; et s'il compte les ignorants, le peuple Américain lui semblera le

" plus éclairé de la terre. La population tout entière se trouve placée entre " ces deux extrêmes. Dans la Nouvelle-Angleterre, chaque citoyen reçoit les " notions élémentaires des connaissances humaines; il apprend en outre " quelles sont les doctrines et les preuves de sa religion : on lui fait connaître " l'histoire de sa patrie et les traits principaux de la constitution qui la régit. " Dans le Connecticut et le Massachusetts, il est fort rare de trouver un homme " qui ne sache qu'imparfaitement toutes ces choses; et celui qui les ignore " absolument, est en quelque sorte un phénomène " (vol. i., p. 366).

I might be inclined to raise a doubt whether acquaintance with the " doctrines and proofs of religion " are quite so general as De Tocqueville supposes them to be; in all other points I am prepared to endorse his opinion.

THE COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM OF CANADA.

Order of this inquiry.

The school system in the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canade—legistatively united, but for educational purposes still distinct—formed the second object of the inquiry which I was appointed to conduct. I have already stated that the summer half of the year includes the long vacations both of the American and of the Canadian schools, and in laying out my plans, one of the first things I had to consider was how best to distribute my time. Some of my friends in England, who knew America, recommended me to commence operations in Canada, under the idea that the war must more or less have dislocated all American institutions, and the schools among them; and that, as that was evidently drawing to its termination, I should probably find things more in their normal condition later in the year. And when the first tidings that reached my ears, as I was on the point of setting foot upon American soil, were the tidings of the assassination of the President, I apprehended myself that I should be compelled, by the necessity of the case, to take this course. I soon found, however, that both I and my friends were mistaken; there was nothing in the condition of the country or of the schools to induce me to change my plans, and as I conceived that the American system was the one upon which your Lordships and the other Commissioners would most desire to be accurately informed, as being the older, the more developed, and the original, I determined to see as much as I could of the schools of the United States up to the middle of July, when they generally begin summer vacation, and then to take the survey that circumstances allowed me of the state of education within the Canadian frontier.

Period of visit to Canada.

Accordingly, having visited the States of New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Ohio, Missouri, Illinois, and Michigan, and seen more or less of educational matters in each of them, I entered Canada from Detroit on the 21st of July, traversed it in its length as far as Quebec, penetrated into the interior as high as Ottawa, and quitted it again, after nearly six weeks sojourn, on August 31st. Of this period of six weeks I spent nearly half in Toronto, placing myself in immediate communication with the office of the Department of Public Instruction for Upper Canada which is located there; and my very best thanks are due to Dr. Ryerson, the chief superintendent, and Mr. Hodgins, the deputy superintendent, for the abundant facilities they afforded me for making myself acquainted with the system of which they are such efficient administrators. At Montreal I was equally fortunate in my intercourse with the Hon. Pierre Chauveau, whose relation to education in the Lower Province is similar to Dr. Ryerson's in the Higher.

Of schools in actual operation, from the circumstances of the case, I could see very few; and I was particularly disappointed not to find the schools in session at Hamilton, when I visited that

city, where the system is worked very vigorously, and is said to be best organized and most fully developed.* I had the pleasure, however, of seeing there Dr. Ormiston, the local Superintendent and formerly Inspector of grammar schools, who is thoroughly acquainted with the system in all its bearings, and who was most willing to give me all the information which he possessed; and subsequently at Toronto, I met Mr. Macallum, Principal of the Central School, who supplied me with some of the reports, containing valuable statistical details.

Schools actually visited.

The schools that I saw at work were the city schools of Toronto, those of Ottawa, and one or two village schools. They were characterized by a remarkable similarity of system, and the differences observable between them were differences of degree rather than of kind; and as I had abundant opportunities of ascertaining the opinions of persons thoroughly conversant with the system both theoretically and practically, and have besides carefully read the extracts from the reports of local superindendents published in the report of the Chief Superintendent, I doubt whether a larger induction of particulars, the fruit of my own observation, would in any material point have disturbed the conclusions at which I have arrived.

No schools seen in Lower Canada.

In Lower Canada, it is true, I had not the opportunity, owing to the time of my visit being in the heart of vacation, of seeing with my own eyes a single school; I have had to trust, therefore, entirely to the printed and oral reports of others. But the condition of things in that province, both as regards the social condition and the religious distribution of the people, is so entirely exceptional, and so utterly unlike what prevails among ourselves, that very little practical information would be available from this source; and the theory of the system, in the points wherein it differs from that of Upper Canada is all, I think, that the Commissioners need concern themselves to know. At any rate, owing to circumstances over which I had no control, a loss somewhere was unavoidable; and of all actual observations that I could have made, that of the schools of Lower Canada seems to me now, as it seemed then, to be the one that could most easily be spared.

Canadian school system eclectic,

The Canadian system of education, in those main features of it which are common to both provinces, makes no pretence of being original. It confesses to a borrowed and eclectic character.†

Law about vacations.

* The letter of the law is peremptory about vacations. "There shall be two "vacations in each year; the first or summer vacation shall continue for two "weeks from the first Monday in August; the second, for eight days at "Christmas. In cities, towns, and incorporated villages the summer vacation "shall continue four weeks, from the first Monday in August" (*Consolidated Acts*, p. 127). The first Monday in August 1865 fell on August 7th. I visited Hamilton on Tuesday, July 25th. and found that the schools had already been broken up for some days, and was informed that the vacation would last for six weeks.

Sources of the Canadian system.

† "The chief outlines of the system are similar to those in other countries. We are indebted in a great degree to New York for the machinery of our schools, to Massachusetts for the principle on which they are supported, to

The neighbouring States of New York and Massachusetts, the Irish, English, and Prussian systems, have all contributed elements, which have been combined with considerable skill, and the whole administered with remarkable energy, by those to whom its construction was confided. It appears to me, however, that its fundamental ideas were first developed by Mr. (now, I believe, Sir Arthur) Buller in the masterly report on the state of education in Canada which he addressed in the year 1838 to Lord Durham, the then Governor General, in which he sketched the programme of a system, "making," as he candidly admitted, "no attempt at "originality, but keeping constantly in view, as models, the system in force in Prussia and the United States, particularly the latter, as being most adapted to the circumstances of the colony."*

founded upon recommendations by Sir A. Buller.

As a result of Mr. Buller's recommendations, (not, however, till after the legislative union of the provinces which Lord Durham had suggested as the best remedy for the various political ills under which they severally laboured), a law was passed in 1841, covering both provinces in its range, for the establishment and maintenance of public schools. It provided for the appointment of a Superintendent of Education for the whole province, with two Assistant Superintendents under him, one for each of the sections. A sum of $200,000 was appropriated for the support of schools, which was to be distributed among the several municipal districts in proportion to the number of children of school age in each of them; $80,000 being assigned to Upper and $120,000 to Lower Canada, such being the then ratio of their respective populations.

Original plan modified.

The circumstances of the two sections, however, particularly in the proportions of Roman Catholics to Protestants in each, and the extent to which the Roman Catholic religion may be said to be established in Lower Canada, were soon found to be so different, that insuperable difficulties were encountered in working a combined system under one central administration, and in 1845 the law was changed. The nominal office of Chief Superintendent was abolished, and the entire executive administration of the system was confined to the sectional Superintendents, and the provinces for all educational purposes again became separated. The law itself was thoroughly revised, and adapted to the peculiar wants of each province as ascertained by experience; and ever since, there have been two systems at work, identical in their leading idea, differing, sometimes widely, in their details, administered by

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Ireland for an admirable series of common school books, and to Germany for our system of Normal School training. All, however, are so modified and blended to suit the circumstances of the country, that they are no longer exotic. but 'racy of the soil' (*Sketch of Education in Upper and Lower Canada, by J. George Hodgins*, p. 3). "There is one feature of the English system"—since abandoned by us—"which I have thought very admirable, and which I "have incorporated into that of Upper Canada—namely, that of supplying the "schools with maps, apparatus, and libraries" (*Dr. Ryerson's Report for* 1857, p. 32).

* *Mr. Buller's Report*, p. 21.

independent executives, and without any organic relations at all.*

The view presented will perhaps be clearer if the two systems are described separately. I propose, therefore, to begin with that of Upper Canada.

History of educational effort in Upper Canada.

The history of educational effort in Upper Canada is not at all necessary to be known for the purpose of comprehending the present system, yet the following brief sketch summarized from Mr. Hodgins' account may not be uninteresting.

First legislation in 1807.

The first legislative enactment in favour of general education was passed in March 1807. It established a classical and mathematical school in each of the eight districts into with the province was then divided, placed it under the control of trustees, and granted $400 a year as salary to the master.†

Provisions of 1816.

Nine years subsequently, in 1816, the first legislative provision was made for common schools. An annual grant of $24,000 was appropriated for the object. Schools were to be established under the management of local trustees, who were to have power to examine and appoint the teacher, make rules of government, and select the text-books, themselves reporting their proceedings to a Board of Education for the district. Each school was to be attended by not less than 20 scholars, and the provincial allowance to each out of the grant was not to exceed $100. No authority was given to raise money for the support of the schools either by rate-bills or local assessment; it was expected that any deficiency would be made up by voluntary contributions. The law was

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Object of Lord Durham's policy.

* The professed object of Lord Durham's constitutional changes was to prevent the recurrence of political troubles similar to those of 1837 by "uniting the "two races, and anglifying the French Canadians." He regarded the latter as a race destined to die out before the superior energy, enterprise, and fecundity of British settlers. His anticipations, however, though apparently supported by very cogent arguments, have as yet, been signally falsified by the event. The union of the Provinces has been followed by no fusion of the nationalities, nor by any marked change of relation in the two dominant religions. The Lower Province is still essentially French in language, manners, habits and sentiments. No ground has been won by British immigrants from French "habitants"; nor by Protestants from Roman Catholics. The following table gives the statistics, as bearing upon this point, of the census of 1861:

Population in	Of French origin.	Not of French origin.	Roman Catholics.	Other Religious Denominations.	Total.
Upper Canada -	35,676	1,351,415	258,151	1,137,950	1,396,091
Lower Canada -	848,269	263,297	943,253	168,313	1,111,566

It is calculated that, if the same rate of increase was maintained, the population of Canada on January 1st, 1864, would be 2,783,079; viz., 1,586,130 in the Upper Province, 1,196,949 in the Lower. The stream of immigration sets largely in favour of the Upper Province: of 589,880 immigrants, 493,212 had settled in Upper, and only 96,668 in Lower Canada.

† The present venerable Bishop of Toronto, Dr. Strachan—now I believe in his 88th year—was the master of the most successful of these district schools, the one established at Cornwall.

considered as an experiment, and its operation was limited to four years.

The experiment could not have been thought very successful, for in 1820 the legislative grant was reduced from £24,000 to £10,000, and the allowance towards the teacher's salary was diminished from £100 to £50. Reduction of 1820.

In 1829 under the lieutenant-governorship of Sir John Colborne, the district grammar school of Toronto was superseded by the foundation of Upper Canada College, endowed with a grant of 66,000 acres of land, which was originally intended to act as a feeder to the provincial university then projected, and which still ranks as the highest educational institution, short of the universities, in Canada. Upper Canada Collegefounded in 1829.

In spite of occasional efforts made to kindle or keep it alive, public zeal in behalf of education appears gradually to have languished till in 1835 a more determined attempt was made to put things on a better footing. A bill for that purpose passed the House of Assembly, but was defeated in the Legislative Council. "In 1836 an elaborate report was prepared by Dr. Thomas "Dunscombe, chairman of the Educational Committee of the "House of Assembly, on the state of education in the various "parts of the adjoining Union which he visited." This report probably turned men's thoughts for the first time to the States as a model; and a draft of a bill was prepared by Dr. Dunscombe, but never passed. Then came the deluge, the political crisis of 1837, which swept away all that had been done previously, and till the work of political reconstruction had been completed, prevented attention to the subject from being renewed. Attempt of 1835.

In 1841, however, the excitement having subsided, the School Act already referred to, embracing in its scope both the provinces, was passed, restoring the Common School system, and containing also a provision for the establishment of separate Protestant and Roman Catholic schools.* It was soon found that its provisions were not eqnally applicable to both sections of the United Province, and in 1843 they were modified as far as concerned Upper Canada. In 1845 was accomplished the practical severance of the province into two independent educational sections again; and in 1846–7 the foundations of the present system were laid, the structure taking more definitely its present shape in 1850, with the addition of a few supplementary inprovements in 1853. Even yet the system can hardly be said to have passed out of the tentative stage, and on the 1st January of this present year (1866) an important modification of the regulations applicable to grammar schools was to come into operation. School Act of 1841.

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* Dr. Ryerson thinks that the introduction of this principle, though dictated by the best motives, was a grand mistake, and has led to painful discussions, as well as retarded the advance of the general system (*Report for* 1857, p. 22). "The equal protection of all parties and classes in the public schools was "provided for, and no party had any right to claim more."

Merits claimed for it.

The system claims as its chief merit, that while it secures the advantages of uniformity, and applies a wholesome stimulant from a central source, yet that it is entirely local and voluntary in its action, exactly adapted to the municipal institutions of the country, and depending upon them entirely for its "nationality, its strength, "its very life."* These municipal institutions are sufficiently simple. Upper Canada is divided into 42 counties, and each county is divided as fast as settled, into townships each about 10 miles square. The inhabitants of the township elect annually five councillors, the councillors elect out of this number a presiding officer, who is called the township reeve. The reeves and deputy-reeves of the different townships form the county council, and this elects its presiding officer who is called the warden. Cities, towns, and incorporated villages are municipalities independent of the township in which they lie. A city must have upwards of 10,000 inhabitants, a town upwards of 1,000, a village more than 500. There are five cities (Toronto, Hamilton, Kingston, London, and Ottawa), 38 towns, 53 incorporated villages, 415 townships; 511 municipalities in all. The township is further subdivided for school purposes by the township council into sections varying in number according to the density of the population, and in size from two to four miles square. In 1863 there were 4,261 school sections in Upper Canada (*Report for* 1863, p. 178).

Municipal system of Upper Canada.

Functionaries of the system.

The public bodies and official persons connected with the Common School administration are seven in number, viz., the Council of Public Instruction, the Chief Superintendent of Education, the County Council, the County Board of Public Instruction, the Township Council, the Trustees of the School Section, the Local Superintendent, whose influence upon the efficiency of the school varies pretty nearly inversely as their distance from it.† It may be well briefly to describe the duties and constitution of these functionaries in the order in which they have been enumerated.

The Council of Public Instruction.

The Council of Public Instruction, like our own Committee of the Privy Council on Education, is the most dignified but really the least influential member of the whole administrative agency employed to work the system of common schools. It consists of not more than nine persons ‡ (of whom the Chief Superintendent of education must be one) appointed by the Governor and holding office during pleasure, subject to all lawful orders and

Their duties in relation to common schools;

* *Ibid*, p. 37. "Nothing can be done in any municipality without the "co-operation of the people in their collective national capacity and in "accordance with their wishes, their school affairs being under their own "management" (*Ibid*, p. 38).

† To this list must be added the Trustees of separate schools in the township, where such exist; and a body with very indefinite powers and duties, called the School Visitors, who shall be noticed in their place. The officers connected with Grammar Schools shall be enumerated when I come to speak of that branch of the system.

‡ For Grammar School purposes, but not, apparently, for more general duties, the President of University College and the head of each of the colleges of Upper Canada affiliated to the University of Toronto—(I believe, as yet, there is no such affiliation)—are *ex-officio* members of the Council of Public Instruction.

directions issued by the Governor from time to time. Their functions are:—

(*a.*) To establish and maintain a normal school for Upper Canada, together with its included model schools, to make all needful regulations for its management and government, and to transmit annually to the Governor to be laid before the Legislature an account of all monies received and spent under this head;

(*b.*) To make such regulations from time to time as they may deem expedient for the organization, government, and discipline, of common schools, for the classification of schools and teachers, and for school libraries;

(*c.*) To examine, recommend, and disapprove of text-books for the use of schools,* or books for school libraries;

(*d.*) To make regulations for granting pensions to superannuated or worn-out teachers.

In relation to grammar schools.

In relation to grammar schools, the Council of Public Instruction are:—

(*a.*) To prescribe the programme of studies to be followed, and prepare a list of text-books to be used therein, and to lay down general rules for their management;†

(*b.*) To appoint a committee of examiners without whose certificate of qualification no person (except a graduate of some university within the British dominions), can be appointed master of a grammar school;‡

(*c.*) To appoint inspectors of grammar schools, prescribe their duties, and fix their remuneration.

The Chief Superintendent of Education.

The Chief Superintendent of Education is an officer appointed by the Governor by letters patent under the great seal of the province, holding office during pleasure, and responsible solely to the Governor. His salary is not fixed by law farther than is implied in the declaration that it shall be of the same amount as that paid to the Superintendent of Education in Lower Canada. His duties in relation to common schools are:—

(*a.*) To apportion annually the legislative grant to the several counties, townships, cities, towns, and incorporated villages, according to the ratio of population in each, and to certify both the Minister of Finance and the clerks of the several municipalities of the amount of the respective apportionments;

(*b.*) To apportion the moneys provided by the Legislature for the establishment and support of school libraries, no aid being given for such object unless an equal amount be contributed and expended from local sources;

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* The penalty for using unauthorized text-books is forfeiture for the year of the school's share of the Common School Fund.

† No grammar school shall be entitled to receive any part of the Grammar School Fund, which is not conducted according to such programme, rules, and regulations.

‡ This certificate is not held in much account; and it is thought by many that none but graduates of a university should be allowed to be masters of grammar schools.

(*c.*) To prepare suitable forms for reports and to transmit them, together with the regulations of the Council of Public Instruction for the organization and government of common schools, to the officers required to make and execute the same, and to print and distribute from time to time copies of the school law for the information of all officers of common schools;

(*d.*) To see that all moneys apportioned by him are properly applied; to deal with any forfeited balance, and to decide when not otherwise provided for by law, upon all matters and complaints submitted to him which involve the expenditure of any part of the school fund;

(*e.*) To arbitrate in case of any dispute between the trustees of Roman Catholic separate schools and the local Superintendent or other municipal authorities, subject to appeal to the Governor in Council;

(*f.*) To have the supervision of the normal school, and to issue provincial certificates, valid in any part of Upper Canada until revoked, to students who have been trained there;

(*g.*) To employ all lawful means to establish school libraries for general reading; to provide and recommend the adoption of suitable plans for school houses, and to collect and diffuse among the people of Upper Canada useful information on the subject of education generally;

(*h.*) To appoint proper persons to conduct county teachers' institutes, and to name one of his clerks to be his deputy, to perform the duties of his office in his absence;

(*i.*) To submit books and general regulations to the Council of Public Instruction, with the view of obtaining their recommendation and sanction, and to prepare and transmit all correspondence directed by them;

(*j.*) To be responsible for all moneys paid through him in behalf of the normal and model schools, and to give such security for the same as the Governor may require; to account for the contingent expenses of his office, and to lay before the Legislature, at each sitting thereof, a correct and full account of the disposition and expenditure of all moneys which come into his hands;

(*k.*) To make annually to the Governor, on or before the 1st day of July, a report of the actual state of the normal, model, and common schools throughout Upper Canada, with such statements and suggestions for improving the common schools and the common school laws and promoting education generally, as he may deem expedient.

In relation to grammar schools his duties are:—

Duties in relation to grammar schools.

(*a.*) To apportion the annual income of the grammar school fund according to law, to notify to clerk of each county council of such appointment, and to see that it is properly applied;

(*b.*) To report annually to the Governor the condition of the grammar schools, to ascertain that they are properly conducted, and to supply them with suitable forms for reports, and with copies of the regulations laid down by the Council of Public Instruction for their administration.

The County Council, in its constitution, has been already described. The number of its members would vary according to the number of townships into which the county is divided.* Its duties, as regards common schools, are :— The Country Council. Its duties in relation to common schools,

(*a.*) To levy annually,† and to collect and pay into the hands of county treasurer before the fourteenth day of December, from the several townships of the county, such sums of money for the payment of the salaries of legally qualified common school teachers, as at least equal, clear of all cost of collection, the amount of school money apportioned by the Chief Superintendent of Education to the several townships thereof for the year ;‡ such sums

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* The Municipal Council of each city, town, and village in Upper Canada is invested, within its limits, with the same powers, and is subject to the same obligations as the Municipal Council of each county and township.

† It is provided in sect. 8 of the Upper Canada Consolidated Assessment Act, that "all municipal, local, or direct taxes or rates shall, when no express "provision has been made in this respect, be levied equally upon the whole "rateable property, *real and personal*, of the municipality or other locality. "according to the assessed value of such property, and not upon any one or "more kinds of property in particular or in different proportions." Property rates must be levied equally on all taxable property within the municipality or section, whether the ratepayer be resident or non-resident. In case of the refusal of a County Council to levy the rate, it is doubtful whether the courts would interpose by mandamus to compel them. The only penalty in such case would be the forfeiture of the share of the legislative school grant ; and if a less sum were raised than equalled the apportionment, the Chief Superintendent would deduct a sum equal to the deficiency from the apportionment of the following year. The township assessment is due and should be distributed in January ; the legislative apportionment not till July. The two sums together make up the "Common School Fund" and are to be employed wholly on the payment of teachers' salaries. The municipal assessment, when levied, is treated as public money, and passes out of the control of the County Council. It is apportioned by the local Superintendent to individual schools on the same principle as the legislative grant, viz., according to the rate of average attendance of pupils at each Common School as compared with the whole average number of pupils attending the Common Schools of each township, and according to the length of time each school has been kept open under a duly qualified teacher. In all these provisions, the New York State system has been closely followed by the Canadian. Principle of taxation, and of distribution of local assessment.

‡ The township assessment is generally considerably in excess of the legislative grant. In 1863, they were $287,768 and $158,073 respectively, showing an excess of $129,695. It is stated, however, that "great difficulty "has hitherto been experienced in collecting the county school rate in sufficient "time to pay the teacher punctually at the end of the year." (*Consolidated Common School Act*, p. 62, *note.*) By law, the county treasurer is bound to pay the local Superintendent's lawful order in behalf of a teacher in anticipation of the payment of the county school assessment, and the County Council is bound to make the necessary provision to enable the County Treasurer to pay the amount of such order. (*Ibid*, § 51.) In Philadelphia a Township assessment

to be increased at the discretion of the council, either in aid of the county school fund, or on the recommendation of one or more local Superintendents, to give special or additional aid to new or needy school sections. The council is further empowered to raise money by assessment for the establishment of any county common school library;

(*b.*) To appoint annually a local Superintendent of schools for the whole county, or for any one or more townships in the county, as it may judge expedient, and to fix and provide for his or their salary ;*

(*c.*) To obtain security from all persons entrusted with school moneys, and to appoint auditors to audit the accounts of the county treasurer and other officers into whose hands such moneys have come.

and in relation to grammar schools.

And in relation to grammar schools :—

(*a.*) To establish within the limits of their municipality one or more grammar schools, as they shall deem expedient, and to appoint boards of trustees therefor, and to change, if thought desirable, the location of any grammar school established since January 1st, 1854 ;

(*b.*) To levy and collect by assessment such sums as it judges expedient, to purchase the sites of, to rent, build, repair, furnish, warm, and keep in order grammar school houses and premises, and to provide for the salary of the teachers and all other necessary expenses of the same.

County Board of Public Instruction.

The County Board of Public Instruction is composed of the Board of Trustees of the County Grammar School (when there is only one),* *plus* the local Superintendent or Superintendents of schools in the county. It is their duty :—

(*a.*) To adopt all lawful means in their power to advance the interests and usefulness of common schools, to promote the establishment of school libraries, and to diffuse useful knowledge in the county ;

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similar difficulty is sometimes experienced; and a practice in consequence has grown up of "paying salaries in uncurrent warrants, negotiable only at a discount of from 12 to 15 per cent." which is reprobated by the controllers as "odious in the extreme" (*Controllers'* 46*th Report*, p. 35).

Territorial limits of a local Superintendent.

* The limit laid down by law on the council's judgment of 'expediency' is that no Superintendent's territory shall include more than 100 schools. His remuneration is to be fixed at a not lower rate than $4 a school. In 1863 there were 314 Local Superintendents ; or rather more than 8 on an average to a county. This strikes me as one of the weak points of the Canadian system (differing herein disadvantageously from Lower Canada), of which more hereafter.

Circuit boards.

† When there is more than one Grammar School in a county, the County Council has power to divide the county into circuits corresponding in number to the number of Grammar Schools ; and for each circuit the trustees of the Grammar School therein, and the Local Superintendent or Superintendents of schools therein, form the Board of Public Instruction for the circuit.

(*b.*) To select from the list of text-books recommended or authorized by the Provincial Council of Public Instruction such books as they may think best suited for use in the common schools of the county;

(*c.*) To examine and give certificates to teachers of common schools, and to arrange such teachers into three classes, according to their attainments and abilities, as prescribed in a programme of examination and instruction provided for that purpose by the Council of Public Instruction;*

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* No certificate is to be given to any person as a teacher who does not furnish satisfactory proof of good moral character, or who is not, at the time of application, a natural born or naturalized subject of Her Majesty, or who does not produce a justice's certificate of having taken the oath of allegiance. The minimum qualifications for each class of certificate are laid down as follows: Teachers' certificates.

Class III.—To be able to read intelligibly and correctly. To spell correctly from dictation. To write a plain hand. To work questions in the simple and compound rules of arithmetic, and in reduction and proportion; and to be familiar with the principles on which these rules depend. To know the elements of English grammar, and to parse any easy sentence in prose. To be acquainted with the relative positions of the principal countries in the world, the principal cities, physical features, boundaries of continents, &c. To have some knowledge of school organization and the classification of pupils. N.B.—In regard to teachers in French and German settlements, a knowledge of French or German grammar may be substituted for that of English, and the certificate be limited accordingly.

Class II.—Intelligent and expressive reading. Bold free handwriting, and an acquaintance with the rules of teaching writing. A knowledge of fractions, vulgar and decimal, involution, evolution, and commercial and mental arithmetic, and of the elements of book-keeping. A knowledge of the common rules of orthography and syntax, and ability to write grammatically, with correct spelling and punctuation, the substance of any passages which may be read, or any topics which may be suggested. Familiarity with mathematical and physical geography, and the particular geography of Canada; and with the outlines of general history.

Class I.—In addition to the requirements for a certificate of the second and third class, a candidate for a first-class certificate must possess a knowledge of the remaining rules of arithmetic; of the rules for the mensuration of surfaces and solids; of algebra, so far as to solve problems in simple and quadratic equations; of the four first books of Euclid; of the outlines of Canadian and English history; of the elements of vegetable and animal physiology and natural philosophy, as far as taught in the fifth book of the National Readers; of the proper organization and management of schools, and the improved methods of teaching; and of the principal Greek and Latin roots in the English language, with the prefixes and affixes. N.B.—Female candidates for first-class certificates need not be examined in mensuration, algebra, or Euclid.

The programme is high enough, but it is not always observed. (See *Report for* 1863, p. 102.) The questions are not unfrequently printed, but the expense is complained of, and sometimes "these questions find their way by some "means to intending applicants, who study and learn well to answer them, "though comparatively ignorant of the arts and sciences to which the ques-"tions refer. Hence many unworthy teachers have received certificates." (*Ibid.* p. 113.) Dissatisfaction too is sometimes felt both among the people and the teachers, from the "suspicion of partiality being shown." (*Ibid*, p. 143.) Another course of dissatisfaction is that the certificates of normal school teachers are valid for the whole province; those of the County Board are only good for the county in which they are issued (see *Report for* 1860, p. 182), and are sometimes suddenly, and it may be capriciously, revoked. (*Report for* 1863, p. 108.) A hope is generally expressed that the third-class teacher

such certificate being either general as regards the county, or limited as to time and place, at the pleasure of the board, being liable also to be revoked or annulled as the board may judge expedient.

Township Council.

The Township Council's duties are chiefly ministerial. It is their function :—

(*a.*) To form new school sections in those portions of the township where no schools as yet have been established, and to unite the sections of a township when a wish to that effect is expressed by a majority of the resident assessed freeholders and householders in each section,* or to consolidate two sections into one ;

(*b.*) To impose an assessment when required by the school trustees, and to levy the same on the taxable property in any school section for the purchase of a school site ; for the erection, repair, rent, and furniture, of a school-house ; for the purchase of apparatus and text-books, for the library, and for the salary of the teacher ;†

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will soon be an extinct species. The law at present limits his employment to one section only. "Thus, when he gets out of employment, he has to go to "school or give up the profession entirely." (*Ibid.*) The standard is gradually rising. "Many who could obtain certificates a few years ago, cannot do so "now" (*Ibid*). From the Report of 1863, it appears that there were employed in that year 4365 certificated teachers, out of a whole number of 4504. Of these 222 held first-class, 275 second-class, normal school certificates. Of those certificated by County Boards, 1233 held certificates of the first class; 2112 of the second class; 493 of the third; showing a decrease, under this last head, as compared with the preceding year, of 127. Every certificate issued by the county board must have the signature of at least one local Superintendent of schools.

* In the event of such a measure, which is analogous to the consolidation of school *districts* in a Massachusetts township (*see above*, p. 27), being adopted, a township board of five trustees (one for each ward, if the township is divided into wards, and if not, then five for the whole township), is to be chosen, and invested with the same powers and subject to the same obligations as trustees in cities and towns. They would then be clothed with all the powers of the school section trustees (of whom, presently), and would have the further right of appointing their own local Superintendent. "The most serious difficulty," reports a local Superintendent, "we have to contend with, is the smallness of "many of the school sections. There are a few here, and I believe there are "very many throughout the province, where inferior teachers must be engaged "at very small salaries, or else the schools must be closed during a great part "of the year. I am afraid it will be a long time before this evil will be "remedied. The power to alter or remodel the sections is vested in the "Municipal Councils; but they are too much under the control of local "influences to be able to act independently in the matter. I believe it can "only be done by men appointed by Government, and entirely independent of "any such influence" (*Report for* 1863, p. 143.) In the state of New York this power is lodged in the School Commissioners of the district, who is appointed by ballot of the district.

† "It is imperative on township councils to levy and collect, by general rate "upon the property of the section, such sums as may be desired by the School "Trustees, according to an estimate proposed and laid before the Council. In "case of refusal, application can be made to the Court of Queen's Bench for "the issue of a *mandamus* to enforce compliance" (*Consolidated Acts*, p. 50, *note*).

(*c.*) To authorize trustees to borrow money in respect of school sites, school buildings, or teacher's residences, and to provide by rate on taxable property for the payment of the interest and repayment of the principal within 10 years;

(*d.*) The township council may also at their discretion levy sums for purchasing books for a township library, and for procuring the site and for the erection and support of a township model school, of which if established they are to act as the trustees;*

(*e.*) And are through their clerk to furnish the local Superintendent with a copy of all their proceedings relating to educational matters, and to prepare in duplicate a map of the township showing the school sections, one copy of which is to be for the use of the county council the other for their own.

School Section Trustees.

Upon the TRUSTEES OF THE SCHOOL SECTION, however, principally hang the fate and fortunes of the school. These officers are three in number for each section into which the township is divided, elected by a majority of the assessed freeholders of the section present at the meeting,† holding office for three years, the senior trustee retiring each year and not being liable to re-election till the expiration of the fourth year from such retirement. They must be resident assessed freeholders or householders in the school section for which they are elected, and no trustee is to hold the office either of local Superintendent or of a teacher within the section of which he is a trustee. If a person chosen as trustee refuses to serve he forfeits a sum of $5, and every person chosen who has not refused to accept office, and, who at any time refuses or neglects to perform its duties, is liable

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* No notice is taken in the Chief Superintendent's Reports of any such schools, and I am not aware that they have any existence, except here on paper. The Model Schools attached to the Toronto Normal School are differently constituted altogether, and are simply subject to the control of the Council of Public Instruction as represented by the Chief Superintendent. A class of schools bearing this name exist in Lower Canada, otherwise called "Superior Primary Schools."

Qualification of voters.

† "No person shall be entitled to vote in any school section for any election of trustee or on any school question whatsoever, unless he shall have been assessed and shall have paid school rates as a freeholder or householder in such section within the last twelve months" (*Upper Canada Common School Act*, ch.64, s.16.) The rate may have been imposed either by the county or township council, or by the school trustees. It appears that the wording of the law gives opportunity for some manœuvres. "It has a very bad effect," writes a local Superintendent, "in this "municipality, and as far as I can learn, in the whole county, from the fact that "it is only in the month of February that the taxes for the preceding year are "collected." (The election takes place on the second Wednesday in January.) "The consequence is that any person having a little money to spare can lend "the school tax to a few who have but little to pay, and by their votes get "himself elected (whether fit or not) against the wishes of the majority who "cannot vote. I have known cases in which the collector kept out of the way "in school election time, nay, even refused to take the school tax, unless all "all others were paid with it" (*Report for* 1863, p. 113). Persons subscribing to the support of a separate school, and belonging to the religious persuasion thereof, and sending a child or children thereto, are not allowed to vote at the election of a trustee for a common school.

Manœuvres.

to forfeit the sum of $20, to be sued for and recovered before a Justice of the Peace by the trustees of the school section for its use.* A trustee, however, may resign with the consent expressed in writing of his colleagues in office and of the local Superintendent; and by the School Law Amendment Act of 1860, it is further provided that "continuous non-residence of six months "from his school section by any trustee shall cause the vacation "of his office."

Their powers; The powers of these officers are very great, and their responsibilities proportionable. They constitute a corporation and have a common seal. They take possession and have the custody of all the common school property in the section. They do whatever they deem expedient with regard to building, renting, repairing, warming, furnishing and keeping in order the section school-house, its premises and appurtenances. They procure the apparatus and text-books required for their school. They may establish if they deem it expedient, with the consent of the local Superintendent, both a female and male school in the section. They may unite their school with the public grammar school which may be within or adjacent to the limits of their section. They contract with and employ teachers, and determine the amount of their salaries.† They provide for the expenses of the school in the way

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Effects of penalties.

* This is borrowed from the New York State Law, only with an increase in the forfeiture. "We should be doing to trustees a gross injustice," writes a local Superintendent, who complains of their being frequently incompetent for their duties, "if we flung the entire blame upon them, as they are sometimes "put into office against their will, having been injudiciously chosen by the "people; and although they know that their lack of interest in schools and "want of learning unfit them for the position, yet they consent to serve rather "than pay the fine which the law could exact in event of their refusal. Still, "we look confidently to the future for a remedy for these evils. Our work can "be no better than our material and our school system. The next generation "may be comparatively free from much that is at present a just ground for "complaint" (*Report for* 1863, p. 117). I gather from this and similar remarks which meet the eye up and down the Report, that whether the system is perfect in its adaptation to the wants of the country or not, at any rate it has not yet got into thorough working order.

Relations of trustees and teachers.

† All agreements between trustees and a teacher must be in writing, and signed by at least two of the trustees and the teacher, with the corporate seal of the section attached, otherwise the trustees may be made personally responsible, and can be sued by the teacher. "It is a matter of great regret that the teacher "is entirely in the power of the trustees. I am afraid that whilst such a state "of things continues, excellent teachers in our common schools will be the exception, not the rule. If teachers could only be removed by a majority of "votes of the ratepayers of the section, then a good teacher would have some "security and encouragement, and removals, when they did occur, would be "more likely to happen in cases where there was either neglect of duty or "actual incapacity on the part of the teacher" (*Report for* 1863, p. 117). Another Superintendent says: "The "frail tenure which teachers have of their "schools still causes much dissatisfaction amongst that body, their continued "employment in the profession depending upon the whim or caprice of a "trustee. Perhaps after teaching for some years, a teacher of advanced years, "and with a large family, finds that he is driven out of his school by younger "men, who having no family ties, and adopting school teaching merely as a "temporary pursuit, until something better offers, will work for half wages. I "heard of an instance in which an experienced teacher with a family was

determined by the majority of voters at the annual meeting, and should the sums thus provided be insufficient they may assess and cause to be collected, *suo motu*, an additional rate in order to meet in full such expenses.* They may either apply to the township council or employ their own lawful authority to collect by rate such sums as are necessary for the support of their school. They may exempt wholly or in part indigent persons, charging the amount of such exemption upon the other rateable inhabitants of the section, and may sue defaulters. They may admit to the school all residents in the section between the ages of five and 21, so long as they conduct themselves in conformity with the rules

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" nearly deprived of his school by a trustee, because he would not rent a house " from him. Fortunately, the newly-elected trustee proved to be a just man; " otherwise the poor teacher would have been deprived of his livelihood, pro- " bably for a year, if not for a longer time. The appointment of a central " township Board of Trustees is the only remedy I can see for this evil," (*ibid.* p. 118). So too with regard to grammar schools, Dr. Ormiston, an ex-inspector, thinks that " while the trustees alone should have the power to " engage the teachers, they should not have the authority to dismiss them " without the privilege of appeal to some other and disinterested party" (*Report for* 1857, p. 210). The teachers of grammar schools are, however, much more absolutely in the power of the trustees than the teachers of common schools. The latter have an appeal to arbitration in matters of dispute, though I doubt if it would extend to cases of dismissal. The arbiters are to be three in number, one chosen by the trustees, another by the teacher, the local Superintendent, (who is appointed by the county council) being the third. The decision of the majority is final. The constitution of this court was discussed by the teachers, who met at Toronto in August last, and (as I gathered from the temper of the discussion) is hardly considered satisfactory. I think the *teachers* would prefer the county court judge to the local Superintendent for the third arbitrator.

Local sources of school's income.

* The local sources of a school's income within the section are (1) voluntary subscriptions; (2) rate-bills for each pupil attending the school, payable in advance, but not to exceed 25 cents. per pupil per month; (3) a rate upon property, which must be levied equally upon all taxable property. The rate-payers of the section decide in which of these three ways the money required for the support of the school shall be raised, but have no power to lower or increase the amount asked for by the trustees. If the rate-bill or subscriptions be decided on and prove inadequate, the trustees can levy a rate upon property for the deficiency without the sanction of a school meeting. Should the annual meeting neglect or refuse to decide on the *manner* of raising the sum required, the trustees can exercise their own discretion as to which of the three modes they will adopt.

Rate-bills.

The rate-bill is in as much disfavour with the authorities of Upper Canada, as it is with those of New York. " It is not possible," says the Chief Superintendent, " to read these extracts from local reports without being impressed " with the serious loss to the school and many children of any section by the " continuance or re-establishment of a rate-bill. Whatever may be the reader's " views on the abstract question of free and rate-bill schools, the perusal of " these extracts must convince him that the free school has immensely the " advantage of the rate-bill school; that whatever other means must be em- " ployed to secure the education of all the youth of the land, the free-school " is one absolutely essential means to accomplish this all-important end," (*Report for* 1863, p. 16). The amount raised by rate-bill for the support of common schools in Upper Canada was only $72,680 in 1863 (being a decrease of $1170 from the preceding year), against the sum of $631,755 (an increase on 1862 of $11,487) raised by the trustees by local assessment (*ibid.* p. 6).

Schools are sometimes " partly free " that is, partly supported by rate-bill and partly by assessment, and the monthly fee is as low as 12½ cents. (*ibid.* p. 117).

of the school and the fees or rates required to be paid on their behalf are fully discharged.* They are to visit each school under their charge from time to time and see that it is properly conducted, and that no unauthorized text-books are used. They may establish a school library in their section and appoint a librarian.

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* A person residing in one school section, and sending his children to school in a neighbouring section, (unless it be to a "separate school") is still liable to all rates assessed for school purposes in the section where he resides; and his child must not be returned as attending school in any other section than that in which he resides, because such return would entail a loss to his proper section in its share of the common school fund appointment. Trustees cannot admit children of non-residents to their school, unless it be a separate school, even if it be a free school, without payment of a fee, the amount of which may be fixed at their discretion.

† "Were trustees, in general, men who took an interest in schools, and men who were really competent to discharge their duties, there would be no room for complaint. As it is, however, (and more especially in rural districts), we not unfrequently find men holding the office, who do not enter the school more than once a year, and whose limited education unfits them for taking any part in its public examinations, and consequently for forming any correct opinion either as to the competence of the teacher or the progress of the school," (*Report*, 1863, p. 117).

Things, apparently, do not always work altogether smoothly in this part of the system. "My greatest trouble," reports one local Superintendent, "is "settling quarrels and disputes between trustees and ratepayers; and I assure "you this is no easy matter when you have ignorant trustees, and still more "ignorant people to deal with," (*ibid.* p. 113). The same gentleman begins his report with the following remarkable sentence: "*In every case I advised "the ratepayers in the several school sections not to elect as trustee any man that "could not read or write, and I am happy to say that my request has been com-"plied with in most cases at the last election.*" One is less surprised to meet with such a state of things in Canada, when I remember to have been told that there were to be found school trustees, scarcely less illiterate, in Philadelphia and New York. Another Superintendent prints the following strong passage: "Experience convinces me that the great body of our common school trustees "are remiss in the performance of their duties, through entire ignorance of their "real nature. Many trustees have never seen the Act. Many more are "scarcely capable of reading, and utterly incapable of interpreting, the same. I "have witnessed other instances of neglect of duty by trustees, for which "ignorance could not be pleaded. Reference has already been made to the "slovenly and inaccurate manner in which *as a general rule*, trustees' annual "reports are filled. In addition, I may mention the prevailing practice of "engaging an incompetent teacher at a low salary, leaving the school-house in "a state of dilapidation, or destitute of proper furniture and apparatus, through "fear of incurring the displeasure of the section on account of expenditure. I "could cite examples to corroborate these statements which receive additional "force from the fact that they occur in this wealthy and well-settled township. "I could point to several of the log school-houses, which are destructive to the "health and growth alike of body and mind. I could instance others in which "the maps are so defaced and time-worn as to be really useless, and one school "in particular where there are but two old maps, and where the local Super-"intendent has on four different occasions (and ineffectually) written to "request the trustees to provide a new set. My report will show that there "are in this township 29 school-houses. Of these, 10 are brick; 5 are "old frames; and the remaining 14 are the original log buildings erected "by the first settlers. Generally the furniture corresponds in kind with "the building" (*ibid.* p. 141). Another says, "Sometimes we see a "little of the political element entering into the sections and marring "their harmony; I choose to vote for my own man as councillor or member of "Parliament, and because I cannot see with the eyes of my neighbour, he

Their responsibilities are co-extensive with their powers. In case of any neglect or refusal to exercise any of the corporate powers vested in them they are held personally responsible for the fulfilment of all contracts and agreements. If they delay to prepare and forward their annual report to the local Superintendent by the 31st day of January in each year, they are to forfeit $5 for every week's delay.* They are bound to lay all their accounts before the school auditors,† and in case of any refusal to produce

Their responsibilities.

" will oppose me in all things. If a school trustee, he gives me all the trouble " he can," (*Ibid*, p. 112). Another case is mentioned in which " The trustees " hired a teacher that was unpopular in the section, and the consequence was " that the school was kept open for some time with only one scholar " (*ibid.* p. 108). Sometimes religious, and at other times merely local, jealousies interfere. " All the schools in this township have given satisfaction, except No. 16, " which, owing to the ratepayers being equally divided between Roman " Catholics and Protestants, and the trustees, who are Protestants, having " hired a teacher obnoxious to the Catholic portion, had the effect of causing a " falling off of nearly one-half the average that should have been." In the same township it is stated, " There are 48 children not attending any school, " more than half of which number are in No. 22, this section being a union " with the township of Yonge. Escott elects the trustees, and has matters all her " own way (having a majority), and Yonge, from sectional jealousy, refuses to " send its children to school" (*ibid.* p. 101). Such difficulties would be likely to be of frequent occurrence.

Contents of annual report.

* This annual Report is to state (*a*) the whole time the school in their section was kept by a qualified teacher during the year ended on the 31st day of the previous December: (*b*) the amount of moneys received for the school fund from local rates or contributions, distinguishing the same; and the manner in which all such moneys were expended; (*c*) the whole number of children residing in the section over the age of five years and under the age of 16; the number of scholars taught in the school in winter and summer, distinguishing the sexes, and those who were over and under 16; and the average attendance of pupils both in winter and summer; but they are not to include in this return any children resident in their section who may be attending a "separate school:" (*d*) the branches of education taught in the school; the number of pupils in each branch; the text-books used; the number of public school examinations, and of visits and lectures, and by whom made or delivered, together with such other information respecting the school premises and library as may be required.

The trustees are also required to send to the local Superintendent a correct half-yearly return of the average attendance of pupils in each of the schools under their charge during the previous six months, with a view to entitle the school to draw its share of the Common School Fund, which is apportioned half-yearly. The trustees are personally responsible for any loss accruing to the school through neglect of this duty.

* " In order that there may be accuracy and satisfaction in regard to the school accounts of school sections," two auditors are annually appointed to revise them—one elected at the annual school meeting by the majority of the qualified voters present, the other appointed by the trustees. If the trustees neglect to appoint an auditor, or appoint one who refuses to act, the local Superintendent appoints one for them. If the auditors object to the lawfulness of any expenditure incurred by the trustees, they shall submit the matter to the next annual school meeting, which may either determine the same, or submit it to the Chief Superintendent of Education, whose decision is final.

Generally, the appointment of auditors is said "to be attended with the happiest " results;" but in some cases they appear, it is said, " to have signed the report " without any investigation whatever" (*Report for* 1863, p. 118). Another Re- " port says, " Another great cause of complaint is the auditors who have been " appointed. In most cases they are more ignorant even than the trustees, and it " is impossible to compile a correct report from the manner in which the accounts

papers, or give information, the party so refusing is held guilty of a misdemeanour, and is liable to be punished by fine or imprisonment. They are also to be held personally responsible for the amount of any school moneys forfeited by or lost to the school section in consequence of any neglect of duty on their part during their continuance in office.

Trustees in cities and towns.

In cities, towns, and incorporated villages, where the municipal council is invested with the functions and subject to the obligations of the county and township councils, within the limits of the municipalities, there are no school section trustees, so called, but a board of trustees is constituted, where the municipality is divided into wards, of two for each ward; where the division into wards does not exist, of six persons, two of whom after the first election retire yearly, who are empowered to exercise as far as they judge expedient, in regard to their city, town, or village, all the powers vested in rural school section trustees.

I heard it said in Toronto that the character and social position of these trustees had of late years somewhat deteriorated; that men of influence and education ceased any longer to take an interest in the working of the system, and that the management of the schools was passing into the hands of persons whose chief idea was to make them meet the wants of their own class —the mechanics, artizans and small tradesmen—and that as a consequence the system though very costly was not doing the work that it was intended to do, and still left large masses of children untaught and uncared for.

The local superintendent

THE LOCAL SUPERINTENDENT, an officer whose position in relation to the school is similar to that of the Assembly District School Commissioner of the State of New York, is appointed annually by the County Council, either for the whole county, or, more generally, for a certain number of townships in the county.* He must not be either a teacher or a trustee of any

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" are reported to me " (*ibid.* p. 113). It is also stated that " Trustees are " generally so afraid of the account which they have to render at the annual " meeting that they are unwilling to incur the odium of sanctioning what " many regard as an unnecessary expenditure " (*ibid.* p. 121). The writer is referring to prizes.

Want of independence in the local superintendent.

* In New York the commissioner is elected by ballot of the votes of the district: In neither case can this officer have that perfect independence of local influence which is essential to the complete efficiency of a school inspector. A better system is at work in Lower Canada, where the inspectors are appointed by the governor, and act under the instructions of the Chief Superintendent. In Upper Canada, " in cities, towns, and incorporated villages the entire duties " of the local Superintendent ought to be prescribed by the Board of Common " School Trustees" (*Consolidated Acts*, p. 82, note). Local Superintendents have no control over grammar schools; and where a common school and a grammar school have been united, their supervision extends only to the common school department.

In Upper Canada, to 4261 school sections in 1863, there were 341 Superintendents, giving an average of about 12½ sections to each. Of these 341 Superintendents, 151 were clergymen of different denominations, 190 were laymen. The denominations of the clerical Superintendents are thus given: Church of England, 35; Church of Rome, 4; Presbyterians, 65; Baptists, 8; Congregationalists, 2; Methodists, 27; Not ascertained, 10.

Common School, while he holds the office of Superintendent; and the range of his jurisdiction must not include more than 100 schools. His salary is provided for by the County Council, the only limit being on the side of a minimum; it must not be less than at the rate of $4 per school.*

It is the duty of the Superintendent to visit each common and separate school within his jurisdiction twice in the year, or oftener if required by the County Council or Board which appointed him; and at each visit, to examine the state of the school as regards the progress of the pupils in learning, the order and discipline observed, the system of instruction pursued, the mode of keeping the registers, the text-books employed, the condition of the buildings and premises, and to give such advice to the teacher or managers on any of the above-mentioned points as he may deem proper.* visits schools.

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* The range of salary is very wide. The local Superintendent of Toronto receives $1,200 a year, and is expected to devote all his time to the work. The Reverend the Superintendent of Onondaga (Brant County) speaks of his "small remuneration 5*l.*," which will not "warrant his bestowing that amount of "pains and time on proper supervision which he would otherwise feel desirous "of doing" (*Report for* 1863, p. 127). In a village which I visited—Clifton—I found that the Superintendent was the Presbyterian minister of the place, a graduate of Queen's College, Kingston, and that his salary was about $35 a year. The reports contain no table to enable me to strike an average; and if I did, with such wide disparities it would be of no value. Superintendent's salary.

† These duties, of course, are discharged with very various degrees of regularity and exactness by different Superintendents. In Toronto I found that the Superintendent visits each school about eight times a month, examining the classes, and generally spending the morning or afternoon within its walls. I should almost fancy that the visits would be more effective if they were less frequent. At Clifton the Superintendent is bound to visit the school four times a year; he actually does visit it eight or ten times, listening to the recitations and observing the methods. I take a picture from the report of 1863, to show how the system works sometimes. "I would suggest that our municipal "(township) council should have the power of appointing their local Superin-"tendent, instead of the County Council, who, in a great many cases lately, "have appointed men as Superintendents contrary to the wishes of the people, "through political influence and other causes. Another great drawback to the "usefulness of the Superintendent is the frequent changes of those holding the "office. He is merely beginning to understand his business when he is suc-"ceeded by another. Thus, no man will go to any great trouble in finding "out the best and latest improvements, when he is dismissed at the end of the "year. *Very many of our Superintendents seldom go near a school, and, if they "do, it is merely a peep in and off again.* These are very popular men, and no "heed is paid to this kind of neglect, and thus it is that many of our townships "receive no benefit from their local Superintendent" (*Report for* 1863, p. 102). I do not think that the writer's suggestion of transferring the appointment from the county to the township council a very wise one, the smaller area would be the hotbed of still intenser personal partialities. I should recommend the adoption of the Lower Canada system. Extend the Superintendent's area of supervision; give the appointment to the Governor in Council; make the office permanent at least during good behaviour; and attach to it an adequate salary. Views of this kind are beginning to be entertained in Upper Canada itself. "The County Council," writes a Superintendendent, "has appointed "several new local Superintendents. There are now nine for the townships, "and three for towns and villages. The superintendency of the schools "will thus become a mere farce. Some of those appointed are quite unfit for "the office, and others quite inexperienced. Each councillor now strives to Way in which superintendent's duties are discharged.

Apportions common school fund.

It is his business also to apportion among the several school sections which comprise his district, their respective portions of the Common School Fund money, the municipal assessments in January, the legislative grant in July, according to the rate of average attendance of pupils at each school, as compared with the whole average number of pupils attending the common schools of the whole township, and the length of time each school has been kept open under a qualified teacher. He gives to such qualified teacher, on the order of the trustees of his school section, a cheque upon the county treasurer for the sum of money apportioned and due to that section, which, as already seen, is to be applied to the payment of teachers salaries only.

Delivers lectures.

The local Superintendent is, further, to deliver a lecture, at least once in a year, in each of his school sections, on some subject connected with the objects, principles, and means of practical education, with a view of stimulating local interest in the matter; * to attend

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" get a favourite and political friend appointed. I have often stated that the " superintendents should be appointed and paid by government, and there " should be but one for each county, who would devote his whole time to the " work " (*Report for* 1860, p. 181). Another Superintendent attributes a state of disturbance in which he found his district to the fact that " the late " Superintendent lived out of the township, and never visited the schools." (*Report for* 1863, p. 113.) The gentlemen who act as Superintendents in the cities of Toronto and Hamilton appeared to me to be admirably adapted for their office, and would be valuable agents in the working of any educational system. London, too, has had reason to congratulate itself on finding gentlemen of such position willing to act in that capacity, and boards of trustees capable of appreciating them. The late Superintendent of London was Mr. Justice Wilson; the present is the Bishop of Huron. The salary is £100, which both these gentlemen have been in the habit of giving up to purchase prizes for distribution in the schools. But these are only exceptions which form the rule; and the rule is that the office of local Superintendent, from a variety of causes most of which have been here illustrated, does not contribute to the efficiency of the system with nearly the force that it ought to do.

Effect of lectures.

* I take it that these lectures, speaking generally, have not the stimulating effect of those delivered with a similar object by the agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education (*see above*, p. 199); and this owing not to any deficiency of interest on the part of the Superintendents, but to a lack either of interest or intelligence on the part of the people. " In regard to school lectures," says one Superintendent, " In many cases there is no audience except the teacher " and children, and no lectures have been given in some of the sections " (*Report for* 1860, p. 188.) " My lectures," says another, " have not been many " this year, owing to my not having any one to lecture to" (*Report for* 1863, p. 131.) " I visited section No. 4," says another, " for the purpose of lecturing, " but although I had given notice of my intention, and it was not a busy time " of the year, I found on my arrival at the school only a few young children " and one parent " (*Ibid.* p. 115). Other Superintendents, however, report " that their lectures hvae been regularly delivered, have been attended by good " audiences, and followed by beneficial results. It is not likely that 341 " gentlemen would all possess the gift of interesting or informing an audience, " and the same person might be a very good Superintendent, but a very poor " lecturer. It appears from the statistical tables that in 1863, in the 4,261 school sections, 2815 lectures were delivered; a decrease of 90 as compared with the previous year. " So that," as the Chief Superintendent remarks, " it " appears that this part of prescribed duty has been neglected by local " Superintendents in more than one-fourth of the school sections " (*Report for* 1863, p. 8).

the meetings of the Board of Public Instruction for the examination and certification of teachers, and of the town reeves, when required to give advice on the formation or union of school sections; and to make an annual detailed report to the Chief Superintendent.*

Issues temporary certificates.

He has also power to give a temporary certificate, on due examination, to any candidate for the office of teacher until the next ensuing meeting of his Board of Public Instruction; and he may suspend the certificate of qualification of any teacher granted by the Board of Public Instruction, and even the provincial certificate issued by the Chief Superintendent, upon sufficient cause, at the same time reporting his proceedings to the respective issuers of such certificate.

Arbitrators.

We have already seen that the local Superintendent is to be one of the three arbitrators chosen to decide disputes between common school teachers and school section trustees.

The School Visitors.

It is perhaps hardly necessary, except for the sake of completeness of view, to notice a body of persons who, it is said, "have it "in their power to exert an immense influence in elevating the "character and promoting the efficiency of the schools, by identi- "fying themselves with them, visiting them, encouraging the "pupils, aiding and counselling teachers, and impressing upon "parents their interests and duties in the education of their "offspring;" † but whose influence is only exerted irregularly and whose position is somewhat indeterminate. The body referred to are the School Visitors. All clergymen recognized by law of whatever denomination, all judges, members of the legislature, magistrates, members of county councils and aldermen are constituted visitors of the schools in the townships, cities, towns, and villages in which they respectively reside, and have a right to visit them, and attend the quarterly examinations, and examine the progress of the pupils and the management of the school, and give such

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Superintendent's annual report.

* The local Superintendent's annual report must comprise the following details: (*a*) The whole number of schools and school sections within his jurisdiction. (*b*) The number of pupils taught in each school over the age of five and under the age of 16; the number between 16 and 21; and the whole number of children residing in each section over the age of five and under 16. (*c*) The length of time a school has been kept open by a qualified teacher in each section; the branches taught and the number of pupils in each branch; the books used, and the average attendance of pupils in each half year. (*d*) The amount of money received and collected in each section, distinguishing the amount apportioned by the Chief Superintendent of Education, the amount received from county assessment, the amount raised by trustees, and the amount from any other and what sources; also how such moneys have been expended, or whether any part remains unexpended; and the annual salary of teachers, male and female, with and without board. (*e*) The number of school visits made by himself and others during the year; the number of lectures delivered; the whole number of school houses and their condition; the number rented, and the number erected during the year. (*f*) The number of qualified teachers, their standing, sex, and religious persuasion; the number of private schools, and of pupils and subjects taught therein; the number of libraries, their extent, and how established and supported; together with any other information or suggestions respecting the educational state and wants of each township within his charge (*Consolidated Acts*, p. 90—1).

† *Consolidated Acts*, p. 97, note.

advice to the teacher and pupils and any others present as they may deem advisable.* As a matter of fact a large proportion of these official visitors stand aloof from the school system, if they are not actually hostile to it; and some of them get a smart slap on the face from the Chief Superintendent in his report for 1857 for their indifference.† A considerable number of visits are indeed recorded to have been paid to different schools in the year 1863; but I imagine that most of them were paid at the quarterly examinations, at which visitors are specially exhorted to be present,§ and of which the teacher of each school is required to give the visitors in the neighbourhood special notice. I suspect that the state of

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Cautions to visitors.

* They are cautioned, however, in visiting schools, "in no case to speak "disparagingly of the instructions or management of the teacher in the pre- "sence of the pupils; and if they think it necessary to give any advice to the "teacher, to do it privately." It is hoped also that "while it is competent "to a visitor to engage in any (religious) exercise which shall not be objected "to by the authorities of the school, no visitor will introduce on any such "occasion anything calculated to wound or give offence to the feelings of any "class of his fellow Christians"—(*Ibid.*)

Importance attached to the corporation of the clergy and others.

† "If the clergymen (who are by law *ex-officio* visitors of the schools) of each religious persuasion in each city and town were to make it their duty (assisted, perhaps, by a committee), to visit each of the poor and negligent members of their respective sections of the community, and use their influence with such persons in behalf of sending their children to some school, what additional and important progress would be made in the education of the mass of our city and town populations. This is not the work of the schoolmaster or the school; it is the work of the clergy and parents, and other members of each religious community, to gather to the school, from the highways and hedges, the prodigal children of their prodigal brethren. How much more worthy is such a work for a clergyman or a merchant, a magistrate or a judge, than indicting charges against the public schools for not doing what belongs to others to do. The clergy, and legislators, and judges, and magistrates, and merchants and tradesmen have much to do in their individual capacity, as well as the school and the schoolmaster, in educating all, even the poorest members of the community. The cities and towns, through their elected boards of school trustees, have made immense progress in a short time the teachers and schools are nobly fulfilling their functions; it remains for others, instead of contenting themselves with the easy task of fruitless regret and criticism, to join with the friends of humanity of all religious persuasions, to bring every neglected and vagrant child to a school of some kind. To educate the youth of all classes requires the individual, as well as official, co-operation of all classes" (*Report for* 1857, p. 28).

Statistics of school visits.

‡ "School visits paid—by local superintendents, 9,672, increase, 329; by clergymen, 6,318, increase, 36; by municipal councillors, 1,765, decrease, 94; by magistrates, 2,250, increase, 245; by judges and members of Parliament, 483, decrease, 110; by trustees 20,046, increase, 1,088; by other persons, 28,698, increase, 844; whole number of school visits, 69,262, increase as compared with 1862, 1338" (*Report for* 1863, p. 8).

Attendance at quarterly examinations.

§ "The law recommends visitors to attend the quarterly examinations of the schools. It is hoped that all visitors will feel it both a duty and a privilege to aid, on such occasions, by their presence and influence"—*Consolidated Acts*, p. 97, note). By law the teacher of a common school is required at the end of each quarter to have a public examination of his school, of which he is to give due notice to the trustees, to any resident visitors, and through the pupils to their parents and guardians. It appears, however, that in 4,133 schools reported open, only 7,570 examinations are reported to have been held in 1863, a decrease of 142 from 1862, which the Chief Superintendent notices as 'very extraordinary.' There were not, therefore, two, instead of four examinations on the average in each school"—(*Report for* 1863, p. 8).

the case is pretty much what beforehand one would prophesy it to be; what one finds it generally to be at home. Here and there is to be found a gentleman with a large heart and a kindly feeling towards those with fewer advantages than himself, who interests himself in the welfare of the schools and largely promotes it; to the mass of those officially put on the list of visitors the school is either a bore or a matter of unconcern.

Voluntary character of the system.

Such, in its leading features, is the constitution of the Upper Canada system of common schools; but before we proceed to observe the manner and record the results of its practical working, it is proper to premise that it is a purely permissive, not a compulsory system, and its adoption by any municipality is entirely voluntary. That, under these free conditions, it has succeeded in the course of 20 years in covering the province with a net-work of schools, and that in the year 1863* it had on its schools' rolls, for a greater or less period of time, the names of 339,817 children between five and 16 years of age, out of a school population within those ages of 412,367, is perhaps the strongest of all proofs that could be adduced that, whether perfect or not in all its parts, it is at least adapted to the wants of the people, and commends itself both to their sentiments and their good sense.†

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* The Chief Superintendent's Annual Reports do not appear to be published till late in the autumn of the year after that which they represent. At the time of my visit to Upper Canada, in August 1865, the Report for 1863—published in June 1864—was the latest.

Dr. Ryerson's description of the voluntary nature of the system.

† The voluntary character of the system is strongly dwelt on by Dr. Ryerson. I extract the following passages from one of his Reports.

"Our legislature imposes no school-tax, as do the legislatures of New York and other American states, but simply empowers the local municipalities to do so if they please, and encourages, to a certain amount, those who are disposed to help themselves in establishing and maintaining schools for the education of their children, but which schools the local parties themselves determine upon the manner of supporting, appoint and remove the teachers, each parent determining what his own children shall be taught in the school."—(such is the Doctor's statement; I do not myself see how or where such powers are given to parents, which, indeed, if exercised, would be fatal at once to instruction, organization, and discipline)—"and there being no restriction whatever in the establishment of private schools. . . . It is also to be observed that the law does not prescribe any particular kind of school in cities and towns, nor any particular mode of supporting them. The electors in each of such municipalities, through their elective boards of trustees, are empowered without any restriction, 'to determine the number, kind, and *description* of schools which shall be established or maintained in such city or town.' The board of trustees in any city or town, and also in any incorporated village, may establish and maintain Church of England, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, Wesleyan, Baptist, or Congregational schools, and appoint a committee of three from each church to the immediate care of the school designed for its members. Nor does the law restrict such municipalities to any particular modes of supporting their schools, the only restrictive clause of the law in regard to rate bills and rates" (viz. that the rate bill shall not exceed 25 cents per child per month), "applying to (rural) school sections alone, but empowers the boards of trustees in each city, town, or incorporated village, to impose as high a rate bill on pupils as they please, or none at all; to support their schools wholly or partially, or not at all, by a rate on property.

"Moreover, I may state still further that the law does not compel any municipality to adopt or maintain the school system at all. Any or every city, town, or incorporated village and township in Upper Canada, may

School statistics.

The population in Upper Canada is estimated in the year 1863 to have been slightly in excess of a million and a half.* The *school* population of that year, that is, the whole number of children between five and 16 years of age, is set down as 412,367. Of these there were in the common schools 339,817, or rather more than 82 per cent. There were also 20,991 pupils of other ages, giving a total enrolment of 360,808, of whom 192,990 were boys, 167,818 were girls; giving the enormous ratio, if the figures are accurate, of nearly one to four of the whole population.†

Attendance of scholars.

The average attendance at the schools, however, is stated to have been only 138,036; only 38 per cent. of the enrolment, and barely more than 9 per cent., or 1 in 11, of the whole population. Of those who are reported to have attended school in the course of that year (using round numbers), 40,000 attended less than 20 days; 70,000 attended between 20 and 50 days; 90,000 between 50 and 100 days; 72,000 between 100 and 150 days; 54,000 between 150 and 200; and only 30,000 exceeded 200 days. So that out of 360,000 enrolled children,

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relinquish the public school system, and leave education to the voluntary system. As an illustration and proof, several townships in the eastern part of Upper Canada declined for years coming into the school system, and the town of Richmond in the county of Carleton has remained a "voluntary" in school matters to this day, never having levied a school rate, or had a board of common school trustees, or a common school, and applying only the third of this current month to enable it to adopt the common school system. Parties, therefore, who wish to abolish the present school system in any municipality, have no need either to assail the Chief Superintendent or petition Parliament; let them go to the rate payers themselves and their representative trustees and councillors, the only parties that can levy the rates, and the very parties that can terminate them and adopt the voluntary system. They can adduce as an example the town of Richmond, which has never paid or been burdened with a sixpence common school tax, where the prospect is not broken by a single common school house, or the children tormented by the tasks of a common school, where the grammar school itself has grown 'small by degrees, and so beautifully less,' as to forfeit the right of sharing in the Grammar School Fund. But if other municipalities have pursued a different course, and erected good school houses, and properly furnished them, and employed good teachers and established good schools, it is because they have chosen, and not because the law has compelled them to do so...If the people in their several municipalities have actually increased their self-imposed school taxes during the last few years at the rate of nearly $100,000 a year for the payment of teachers alone, and increased their self-imposed taxes for the erection of school-houses, the purchase of school apparatus and libraries in corresponding ratios, so as to exceed in the amount of their self-imposed rates in proportion to population, the old and great State of New York, where the school tax is imposed by the State Legislature, and collected by the State tax-gatherer; what does the fact prove but the amazing capabilities of our municipal system, and the hold which it has upon the minds and hearts of the people. The school, like the municipal system, has become a part and parcel of the local self-government rights of the people, and he must be a bold man who will attempt the invasion of them" (*Special Report on Separate Schools, &c.*, 1858, pp. 49–52).

* At the Census of 1861, it was 1,396,091. It is estimated that in January 1864, assuming the same rate of increase, it would have reached 1,586,130. (See "*Canada: for the information of Intending Emigrants*" p. 71).

† This is exclusive of 5,352 pupils reputed as attending the grammar schools, and 8,473 pupils reported in colleges, academies, and private schools; making the total number of pupils under instruction in schools of all kinds in the year 1863, 374,633; as nearly as possible one in four of the population.

200,000, or considerably more than half, attended school less than 100 days; and probably not more than 60,000, or less than 17 per cent., attended 176 days.* "The same table reports the

* I take this figure for the purpose of making a comparison with the state of things ascertained in England and Wales by the Duke of Newcastle's commission in 1858. But before making the comparison, it may conduce to clearness if I set the Canadian results before the reader's eye in the shape of a table: Comparison of Canadian and English school statistics.

Estimated population of Upper Canada in 1863.	Number of children between 5 and 16.	Number enrolled in that age.	Number enrolled in other ages.	Total enrolment.	Average attendance.	Number of children not attending any school.
1,500,000	412,367	339,817	20,991	360,808	138,036	44,971

Number of Children attending School.						No. of children whose attendance is not reported.
Less than 20 days.	20 to 50 days.	50 to 100 days.	100 to 150 days.	150 to 200 days.	Over 200 days.	
39,239	69,828	89,998	71,949	53,473	30,750	5,575

The English Commissioners of 1858-61 pursued their inquiries, through the agency of 10 Assistant Commissioners, (of whom I had the honour to be one) in five pairs of "specimen districts," so called, containing one eighth of the population of the kingdom, and supposed to represent the average or typical state of education in agricultural, manufacturing, mining, maritime, and metropolitan localities. I believe that the returns obtained were tolerably complete, and as accurate as such returns can be ever expected to be. They exhibited results which may be tabularly compared with those from Canada:

TABLE I.

Locality.	No. of schools making returns.	No. of children enrolled.	No. of children in average attendance.	Percentage of attendance on enrolment.
Upper Canada -	4,133	360,808	138,036	38
England & Wales	1,832	180,740	137,528	76

TABLE II.

Centesimal proportion of scholars returned as having attended school during the year.

Locality.	Less than 50 days.	Between 50 and 100.	Between 100 and 150.	Between 150 and 200.	Over 200 days.
Upper Canada -	30·3	24·9	19·9	14·8	8·5
England & Wales	17·4	18·9	20·9	24·4	18·4

It must be remembered that in the Canadian Return there are 5571 children, or 1·6 per cent. of the whole, whose attendance is not reported.

The number of 176 days was that fixed in England by the Committee of Council on Education as the amount of attendance which should entitle the school to receive capitation money in respect of any child. In this respect the two returns give the following comparative results: The Canadian return shows not more than 60,000 children, or rather less than 17 per cent. who attended 176 days. In 630 English schools which made the return, the proportion of scholars who attended school 176 days was 39·4 per cent.; and in the schools aided by the Committee of Council, the per-centage rose as high as 41·28. In this calculation I have probably done more than justice to Canada, for out of 53,473 children who are returned as having attended, more than 150 but less

" painful and humiliating fact of 44,975 children not attending " any school."

Cost per child.

The total income of the schools from all sources (including a balance of $167,285 from the previous year), was $1,432,885; the total expenditure was $1,254,447, leaving an unexpended balance of $178,438. This gives the annual cost of the education of each child *enrolled* $3½ or about 14*s.* 6*d.*; of each child in average attendance, $9 or 1*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.**

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than 200 days, I have taken 29,250 as having attended 176 days and added them to the 30,750 who attended more than 200 days. Under all these heads it appears that in England we secure more than twice as good an average attendance, as compared with the whole number of children belonging to the school, as they contrive to do in Canada. Of course, allowance must be made for the severer and longer winter, the greater sparseness of the population, the state of the roads, and so forth, which are all alleged as causes of the irregular attendance that prevails in Upper Canada. But the evil, as I shall have occasion to notice further on, is in quite as large proportions in the cities and towns. Thus, in Toronto, the total number of Protestant children of the school age in 1864 is estimated at 7,500, of whom 5,550 were entered on the school registers; with an average daily attendance of only 2,400, or 43 per cent. The largest attendance at the schools on any one day was 2831, or 51 per cent. Of the 5550 enrolled, 756 attended less than 20 days; 1105 between 20 and 50; 1296, between 50 and 100; 967, between 100 and 150; 902, between 150 and 200; and 524 over 200 days (see *Report of Local Superintendent for* 1864, pp. 1–14). I suspect that in Toronto the enumeration is given only of *protestant* children, because the Roman Catholic children are almost exclusively in separate schools. For the English facts quoted in this note, see the *Report of the Duke of Newcastle's Commission*, vol. i., pp. 648, 651, 652.

Tabular view of income and expenditure.

* Here again a Table will give clearness to the view.

Receipts of Common Schools in Upper Canada in 1863.

Legislative Grant.		Municipal Assessment to meet Legislative Grant.	Trustees Assessment.	Raised by rate-bills.	From Clergy Reserve Fund and other sources.	Balances from 1862.	Total Receipts.
For Teachers' Salaries.	For Maps, Apparatus, Prizes, and Libraries.						
$151,073	$8,854	$287,763	$631,755	$72,680	$108,467	$167,285	$1,432,885

Expenditure of ditto in ditto:

For Teachers' Salaries.	For Maps, Apparatus, Prizes, and Libraries.	For Sites and building School Houses.	For Rents and Repairs of School Houses.	For Books, Stationery, Fuel, & other expense.	Total Expenditure.	Unexpended Balance.
$987,555	$20,775	$106,637	$34,867	$104,610	$1,254,447	$178,438

The number of schools reported as wholly free was 3,228; those *partly* free, *i.e.*, where a moderate school fee is charged, but not enough to dispense with the trustees' assessment, 834; the number supported by rate bill 71. The income derived from the townships' share of the Clergy Reserve Funds, which have been secularized and divided among the townships, can be applied to education or to any other public purpose at the option of the people. One Superintendent reports, " Public moneys are still used in making and repairing roads in pre- " ference to making and repairing minds. Such is the will of the people, and " they have it all their own way " (*Report for* 1863, p. 98). Another mentions a case in which a " very efficient school is maintained entirely by the government " grant and county assessment, without requiring to raise anything by rate

The few opportunities which I enjoyed of testing this average by its conformity to facts, indicate that it is not very wide of the actual mark. The whole yearly cost of the town school at Clifton, I was informed by the master, was about $800. There had been enrolled on the books of the school in the year the names of 190 pupils. The average attendance for the year would be, he said, about 90. This would give an annual cost per child of about $4·20 on the enrolment; of $9·10 on the attendance. Figures tested by actual observation.

In Toronto, the total cost of the schools for the year 1864, was $26,187, giving a cost per pupil on the aggregate number registered of $4·70; on the average daily attendance, of $10·91; or deducting from the gross estimate the annual interest on sites, buildings, and furniture, viz. $5,280, the cost per child will be reduced to $8·71 on the average daily attendance.*

" bill or local assessment" (*Ibid*). If so, the economy must be practised, one would think, at the cost of the teacher. Another case is mentioned, where "the Clergy Reserve money for 1863 amounted to $674, which with the Government grant makes the school fees light, and is in some instances sufficient to pay the salaries of the teachers. The rate-bills on pupils was only $83 for the whole township" (*Ibid.* p. 101). In two other townships " the Municipal Council have invested the principal of the Clergy reserves " received by them in interest-paying securities, and set the whole apart as " a school fund, from which the township of East Gwillimbury apportioned " last year $527, and the township of Whitchurch $460. This fund is fast " accumulating" (*Ibid.*, p. 116). The local tax is said " seldom to exceed, " even for a large family, $2 or $3 a year per hundred acres, over and above " the public grants" (*Ibid.*, p. 139). I do not know, however, what the size of the family has to do with the amount of the tax, as it is added that all the schools in the four townships referred to are free.

* See *Local Superintendent's 6th Report*, p. 14. The schools in the city of Hamilton are said to be the most completely organized, and the best conducted of any in Upper Canada. The zeal with which the Hamilton people have accepted the school system is contrasted favourably by the Chief Superintendent with the lukewarmness, not to say the say the hostility, which it has encountered in Toronto. "The common schools," says Dr. Ryerson, "are the pride and " boast of the city of Hamilton. Hamilton has erected a large central school " for the higher classes and larger pupils, and primary school-houses in each " ward for the smaller children, who are drafted or promoted to the central " school as they advance in their studies." (In American phrase, it is a *graded* system). "Hamilton has also adopted the normal and model school system, " by employing a head master and teachers, all of whom have been trained in " the normal school . . . Hamilton, therefore, furnishes an illustration of the Provincial system," in its perfection (*Report on separate schools*, p. 50). It will therefore be interesting to observe the following table, taken from the *Local Superintendent's Report for* 1863, p. 21, and compare the figures with the calculations drawn from a wider area. City of Hamilton statistics.

Year.	No. of School Population between 5 & 16.	Number on Register of Public Schools.	Average daily attendance.	Percentage of attendance on enrolment.	Total yearly cost per pupil on enrolment.	Total yearly cost per pupil on attendance.
1859	5,000	3,560	1,763	49·5	$6·70	——
1860	5,000	3,709	1,517	40·6	5·45	——
1861	4,200	3,122	1,687	54·0	5·12	$9·50
1862	4,850	3,003	1,667	55·5	5·27	9·53
1863	4,800	3,508	1,907	54·4	4·31	7·94
*1863	4,800	3,549	1,948	55·0	4·61	8·39

* The last line includes the grammar school.

Comparison with United States

It will be seen, by reference to p. 56 above, that these figures do not differ very widely from the figures which are found to prevail in the United States; and that, speaking generally, and excluding the high schools, a feature of the American which can hardly be said to exist in the Canadian system, the cost of education under the two administrations is nearly the same; the difference that there is, in respect of cheapness, remembering the present difference there is in the value of the dollar in the two countries, is slightly in favour of the United States.

Number of schools.

There are, as I have already stated, in Upper Canada, or rather there were in 1863, 4273 school sections, in which 4133 schools are reported to have been kept open in that year* (29 not being reported).

School buildings.

The number of school-houses is set down at 4,173, of which 501 are built of brick; 335 of stone; 1,633 are framed; 1,675 are log-houses still. Of these 3,546 are held by freehold title; the rest are either leased or rented from year to year. I do not at all mean to infer that as is the house, so will be the school, though certainly there is very often a proportion in things; but those who know what a log-house ordinarily is may be surprised to find that more than one-third of the schools of Upper Canada are held in buildings of that kind.

The school year.

The average time during which the schools were kept open in the year 1863 was 10 months and 29 days, a period far in excess of what we have seen to be the average length of the American school year. Indeed, in this point the Canadian system works to a manifest advantage. The engagement of the trustees with the teacher is almost always for the year, and not merely for the winter or the summer session. And though the frequent change of teacher is complained of even in Canada as one of the most serious obstacles to the progress of the schools, it cannot amount to anything like the disturbance that is produced in the States by the still more frequent occurrence of the same cause. At Clifton I found that the master, who had been in charge for seven years, considered that he had a permanent engagement, only with a month's notice on either side. And such I should imagine would be the case in all the best schools.†

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* I cannot tell, from the way in which the table is drawn up and the report worded, whether this number includes the Roman Catholic separate schools, 120 in number, or not. I rather think not. It certainly does not include the 95 grammar schools.

County boards laxity in issue of certificates.

† The Chief Superintendent speaks with some severity of a mischievous habit that prevails in some districts. "It is a maxim founded on experience that the "teacher makes the school, and it is the county and circuit board that "(legally) makes the teacher. I earnestly hope that the County Boards will "advance in the noble cause which so many of them have pursued during the "last year, and the schools will soon be freed from the nuisance of an incom-"petent teacher, who often obtains a second or third-class certificate through "the laxity of some county or circuit board, and then sneaks from one "school section to another, endeavouring to supplant some really competent "and efficient teacher, by offering to teach at a lower salary; and when such a "supplanter meets with trustees as mean as himself, a really worthy teacher is

Indeed, it may be said generally that the Upper Canadian schools are kept open throughout the year; and though they appeared to me to crib a little more vacation than the law, which is very stingy in this respect,* allows them, this continuity of instruction is much in favour of their being able to produce solid and permanent results.

Teachers. According to the table exhibited in the report, there were 4,504 teachers employed in the common schools in the year 1863, of whom 3,094 were males and 1,410 were females. This ratio of the sexes to one another, particularly when compared with the condition of things in New England and others of the States, is very remarkable. The ratio, however, is being slowly altered even in Upper Canada. In 1863 there was an increase of 119 in the number of female, and a decrease of 21 in the number of male, teachers, as compared with 1862; and in 1860 the numbers were 3,100 males and 1,181 females. "It is found," says a local Superintendent, "that female teachers can maintain winter schools with "success, and that even the larger boys are easily managed by "them."† Of these 4,504 teachers, 4,365 are reported as certificated, 497 of them holding provincial certificates as students who had been trained in the normal school.‡ A considerable difference of feeling prevails about the value of these different rates of certificate generally. The local Superintendents report a decided superiority on the part of the trained teachers; but in the city of Toronto, which is the seat of the normal school, its students are regarded with less favour, and Dr. Ryerson makes it a reproach to its school authorities that they have "thought proper "to ignore the normal school, though established within its limits; "and (in 1858) not a normal teacher had been placed in charge "of one of the common schools of the city, and only two or three

Their sex.

Certificates

"removed to make way for an unworthy one, to the great wrong of the more "advanced pupils and their parents, and to the great injury of the school. "Such a teacher is unreasonably dear at the lowest price; and if any corpora- "tion of trustees can yet be found to sacrifice the interests of the children "committed to their trusteeship, by employing such a teacher, it is to be hoped "that no county or circuit board of public instruction will put it in their "power to do so by again licensing such a person at all as a teacher" (*Report for* 1863, p. 16).

* *See above*, p. 206, *note* *.

† *Report for* 1863, p. 122. If there be any general grounds for the complaint made by another Superintendent of "a want of due regard to personal appear- "ance, politeness, and general deportment manifesting itself frequently in many "otherwise efficient teachers, habits which are acquired by the pupils, and go far, "he believes, to foster that boorishness and want of courtesy which offend the "educated visitor on entering our common schools or engaging in conver- "sation with the pupils" (*ibid.*, p. 141), a still larger leavening of female refinement might be desirable.

‡ The grades of these several certificates have been mentioned above p. 215, note. It strikes me as rather extraordinary that only 497 students of the normal school are now engaged in teaching. In the 30 sessions passed since its establishment in 1847, it appears that 3,981 students had been admitted, and 1837 had received certificates; and though it is stated that many students attended more than one session, and their names therefore are counted two or three times over, there is still considerable loss unaccounted for.

" employed in subordinate positions."* In some districts teachers holding third-class certificates are almost universally repudiated; in others a disposition is shown to prefer teachers of a lower grade on account of cheapness.† It appears that the supply of teachers is in excess of the demand, many young men choosing the profession because they think it easy work, and, as a necessary consequence, salaries are kept low—in many cases not equal to the wages paid to domestic servants.‡ None of the Canadian salaries rise so high as some of those paid in the larger cities of the Union, the highest being no more than $1,300 a year; but, on the other hand, I doubt if the range of low salaries is anything like so large; the average is taken on a more even basis, and as the Canadian teachers are a much plainer and less dressy set of people than their confraternity in the States—more, in fact, resembling the elementary school teachers whom we are accustomed to see at home—perhaps their lot in life is quite as independent and quite as comfortable.

Salaries.

According to the Report of 1863,§ the lowest salary paid to male teachers in a county was $84; the highest salary, $600. The average salary of male teachers, with board, was $161; without

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* *Report on separate schools*, p. 50. I did not find that much improvement had taken place in the feelings of people at Toronto towards the normal school in 1865. They generally expressed themselves in this way; that the material taken to form teachers out of is very raw; got from the country mostly; that the students are carried through a high course in a short time, sometimes in a single session of four months, generally in two, and that the practice of issuing provincial certificates to students after examination conducted only by their own teachers is very objectionable. A local Superintendent told me of a case within his own knowledge where a candidate for a teacher's situation holding a first-class normal school certificate, was plucked by the county board for ignorance of common things. But such cases would be very rare, and, as I have said, normal school teachers are generally well spoken of. There would naturally spring up a little jealousy between teachers holding irrevocable provincial certificates (as they practically are), and those who are liable to be re-examined by county boards every year. One local Superintendent says, "Two of these "teachers have been trained at the normal school, Toronto. They have been "re-engaged in their present situations, so well satisfied are the parents and "pupils of their sections, and general esteem for them prevails. I never "expected that, during my lifetime, such a change in our schools would be "effected as that introduced by the teachers in their classifying, monitorial, "intellectual, and social method of teaching" (*ibid*, p. 142).

† "Third-class teachers have been repudiated in all the school sections but one this year" (*Report for* 1863, p. 119). "I am sorry to notice in some of "the sections a disposition to part with first-class teachers; and to be satisfied "with teachers of a lower grade, who can be obtained for lower salaries" (*ibid*, p. 131).

‡ There is in this neighbourhood a superabundance of teachers, so that many "are outbidding one another in the reduction of salaries, thereby causing some "superior teachers to lose their situations and retire from the profession for "want of an adequate remuneration for their services" (*ibid*, p. 142.) "'It "is easier than working out,' said a young man to me when I asked him why "he taught for $6 a month (*Report for* 1850, p. 161.) "The services of a "third-class female teacher were lately bargained for at $8 a month, and that "of a first-class female teacher at $14, without board. In fact the recompence "of ordinary teachers does not equal that demanded by and paid to domestic "servants" (*Report for* 1863, p. 131).

board, $261: of female teachers, with board, $130; without board, $172.

In cities, the highest salary paid to a male teacher was $1,300, the sum paid to the Principal of the Central School at Hamilton; the lowest was $250. The average salary of male teachers was $558; of female teachers, $225.

In towns, the highest salary paid to male teachers was $800; the lowest $198. The average salary of male teachers was $470; of female teaches $227.

In villages, the highest salary paid to male teachers was $800; the lowest, $180. The average salary of males was $408; of females, $180.

It is stated that the tendency under all these heads, though a very slight one, is in the direction of a rise.

Changes of teachers.

The number of schools in which the teachers were changed in 1863 was 787, not quite one in five, a proportion which indicates that the mischief arising to the schools from this cause is not nearly so serious as it is in the neighbouring States. It very rarely happens, either in America or Canada, that residences are provided for the teachers, and that fact has to be borne in mind while comparing their salaries with the remuneration of teachers at home. A hope is expressed in the Report of 1860, though allowed to be premature, that "the day is not far distant when the people of "Canada West will see it to be their duty to erect suitable school-"houses with dwellings attached, which, it is thought, would tend "to elevate the status of the teachers, and also prevent the fre-"quent changes that now take place."*

Residences.

Organization of schools.

The Common Schools of Upper Canada are normally organized in three divisions, with a separate teacher to each, who is at liberty to distribute his division into as many classes as he finds expedient. In rural schools, under a single teacher—and there are only 187 schools in Canada in which more than one teacher is employed—this organization, of course, cannot be completely carried out, and various modifications in consequence are introduced. The Clifton School I found organized under a master and a female assistant, in two divisions, the upper containing two classes and the lower three, corresponding to the first, second, and third book of reading lessons. The children enter the junior department at the age of

* Page 178. A table, with some interest attaching to it, is that which shows the religious denominations of these teachers:—

Religious Persuasion.	Church of England.	Church of Rome.	Presbyterian.	Methodist.	Baptist.	Congregationalist.	Lutheran.	Quaker.	Christian & Disciple.	Reported as Protestant.	Unitarian.	Other Persuasions.	Not reported.
Number -	747	504	1,316	1,313	246	63	26	20	34	81	1	40	101
Increase -	—	20	29	25	28	8	—	—	10	14	—	3	44
Decrease -	71	—	—	—	—	—	6	2	—	—	4	—	—

The Church of England is the only religious body that exhibits a serious decrease in the number of teachers of its denomination. I do not know whether it is to be accounted for by the attitude, unsympathizing, if not hostile, generally taken up by the clergy towards the system (*Report* for 1863, p. 36).

five, and are promoted when fit, ordinarily at the age of eight or nine. We have seen that it is at the discretion of the trustees to maintain in each section a mixed school or two separate schools. The Clifton school, as I imagine the large majority of Upper Canada schools to be, was a mixed school. The nine schools of Toronto have each of them a separate male and female department.

Hamilton city schools.

The organisation of the city schools of Hamilton is universally admitted to be the most perfect which exists under the common school system. The following description of it is slightly abridged from the Report of the Superintendent for the year 1861.

The population of Hamilton in that year, according to the census, was 19,096, and the number of children in the school-age is stated to have been 4,200. To meet the requirements of this population the school accommodation consisted of one central building—handsome, spacious, and well situated, occupying with its premises a plot of about two acres of ground—and six ward school-houses, which together offered accommodation to about 2,250 scholars.

Organization.

The schools were organized into a grammar school, a central or high school, three intermediate, and six primary schools;* and employed the services of 33 teachers, with an average of about 60 pupils apiece.

The grammar school consists of two departments, a classical and mathematical, each under a separate master, and both distinct from the classes of the central school.

The central school comprises a first-class of both sexes (since called the English department of the grammar school), under the joint tuition of the Principal and the first assistant; and eight classes of boys and six classes of girls, each under a separate teacher, male or female.

The intermediate schools are each under the care of a female teacher, as are also the 12 classes of the primary schools.

Promotions.

The pupils are promoted from class to class, and from school to school after regular periodical personal examination, within the limits of their respective studies, conducted by the Principal, who (like the Master of a Boston grammar school) has supreme control over the whole organization; and when pupils have advanced as far as the second class, they have the option of passing on to the first or highest class (now called the English department) of the central school, or of entering the grammar school with the view of prosecuting the study of classics and mathematics.

Grading of the schools.

Under this organization, all the children attending the schools are carefully classified into twelve grades, nine in the central school, one in the intermediate, and two in the primary school, which are

* To understand this arrangement, we must forget the American nomenclature, which, in the two highest grades, is here exactly transposed. It happens that in this organization there has taken place that union of the grammar school with the common school system, which elsewhere and generally, is said to have been told so much to the disadvantage of the former.

further subdivided into 30 classes, several of them co-ordinate. The theory is that a class should consist of from 60 to 75 pupils, of attainments so nearly equal that all may be taught together without hindrance to any. Teachers are expected to promote at least 50 per cent. of their pupils at each examination. A smaller promotion would probably be thought to indicate either want of diligence or inefficiency.

Subjects of instruction in primary schools.

In the primary and intermediate schools, which are kept under the same roof, "the course of instruction comprises reading, spelling, "enunciation, pronunciation, writing on slates, oral and written "arithmetic, arithmetical tables, geography, and developing lessons "on objects, size, colour, form, &c." The programme rigidly defines the time that is to be given to each of these subjects: the capital subject of reading, writing, and arithmetic getting the largest share, in the proportion of about ten, six, and five hours out of about 28 hours per week respectively.

In central school.

In the central school the programme of instruction is considerably wider. It embraces "reading, spelling, writing, "arithmetic, geography, English grammar, object lessons, natural "history (Canadian, English, and general), physiology, drawing "mensuration, trigonometry, book-keeping, astronomy, algebra, "geometry; and one each term of the following subjects,— "chemistry, natural philosophy, botany, zoology." The first-named studies, as constituting the basis of an English education, occupy about four-fifths of all the time and labour spent in the schools.

In grammar school.

The grammar school course comprehends Latin, Greek, and French, arithmetic including book-keeping, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, history and geography, reading and writing, English grammar and composition, natural philosophy. The Principal is to unite in one class such pupils of the grammar school department and of the first division of the English department as are pursuing the same branches of study, whenever he deems it advantageous to do so, and in French the grammar school pupils receive their instructions along with the pupils of equal advancement of the central school. No pupil is allowed to join a French class till he has reached the second division.

Home lessons.

Home lessons are prescribed for every evening, and parents are particularly requested not to allow any domestic arrangements to interfere with the due preparation of them.

Library and apparatus.

The school library contains upwards of 1,500 volumes, which are regularly taken out by the more advanced pupils, and in addition to an adequate supply of blackboards, maps, charts, and calculators in each room, there is an excellent and complete set of apparatus for illustrating the lectures in natural philosophy, chemistry, and physiology, all of which is in good order.

School fees.

The schools are not absolutely free. In the primary and intermediate departments, the sum of $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents per month is charged, in the central school the charge is 25 cents per month. But for this payment, in addition to tuition, the pupils are supplied with all the books, slates, stationery, &c. that they require. The

students in the grammar school are charged $1 a month, and provide their own books in Latin, Greek, and French.

Cost.

By the report of 1863 it appears that the grammar school department is self-sustaining, and the table in the foot-note exhibits the general balance sheet of income and expenditure for that year. The third table shows the number of pupils in each branch of study during the last five years. The decrease in the last three years in the number of students of Latin, and the small number of those who at any time have studied Greek, are two remarkable phenomena.* The sudden and rapid declension also, in the numbers of those who have been taught vocal music and linear drawing since 1859 is so extraordinary as to make me suppose that some modification of the system must have taken place in these respects, though none such is noticed in the reports that I have at hand.

Order and discipline.

The order of the day and the discipline of the schools are thus described in the report for 1861 :

" At a quarter to nine in the morning and a quarter past 1 p.m. the teachers are in their respective school-rooms or yards in which the children assemble. The large bell in the cupola is rung for ten minutes, at five minutes before school time the bell stops, and each teacher lines his or her division in the yard, in order that they may, without noise or confusion, walk into the building.

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* Classical department of the central school (grammar school).

I. RECEIPTS FOR THE YEAR 1863.

	$
Government Grant	742
Fees from Pupils	458
Share of Government Money for Prizes	40
	$1,240

EXPENDITURE FOR 1863.

	$
Classical Master's Salary	800
Fuel and Care of Room	40
Books, Stationery, Prizes	100
Towards Salary of French and Writing Masters	300
	$1,240

II. GENERAL BALANCE SHEET, 1863.

RECEIPTS.

	$
To Balance of last audit	3,271.29
Rate-bill (School fees)	4,525.92
Legislative School Grant	1,760.00
Municipal Assessment	7,327.13
Government Grant to Grammar School	742.00
Other sources	160.18
	$17,797.18

PAYMENTS.

	$
By Teachers' Salaries	12,255.33
Other School Offices	1,692.83
Rent and Repairs	697.00
Maps, Stationery, Apparatus	903.34
Library Books	100.00
Other Expenses	705.94
Balance in hand	1,442.74
	$17,797.18

III.

Year.	Reading Class.					Other Branches of Instruction.										Languages		
	First Class.	Second.	Third.	Fourth.	Fifth.	Algebra.	Euclid.	Mensuration.	Grammar.	Geography.	History.	Writing.	Book-keeping.	Natural Philosophy.	Vocal Music.	Linear Drawing.	Latin.	Greek.	French.
1859	716	1,763	434	376	246	158	80	20	1,268	3,560	646	3,560	88	80	8,230	3,436	167	5	146
1860	960	1,393	401	554	206	80	60	36	1,548	3,709	941	3,709	140	65	3,000	1,400	140	6	85
1861	752	1,312	405	470	137	70	51	40	1,318	3,122	552	3,122	100	56	1,008	200	70	12	97
1862	607	1,422	447	412	163	68	60	48	1,311	3,003	667	3,003	70	80	839	237	55	12	100
1864	977	1,466	453	434	179	75	60	54	1,376	3,508	615	3,508	80	90	635	282	68	12	105

Should any of the teachers be absent, the Principal makes provision for the same; illness is the only cause that excuses the absence of a teacher. In any other case the consent of the Principal is necessary. So soon as each division is in the room, the teacher reads the portion of scripture selected for that morning; this done, the teachers attend to notes for absence or lateness, cleanliness of person, clothes, &c., and any deficiency in these respects is at once corrected. At half-past ten some of the divisions have recess; when they are all in, the rest go out for their recreation. Fifteen minutes is the time allowed from their beginning to go out till they are in their places again. In the afternoon the primary schools only have recess. During this time the teachers are in the yards with the children; indeed, *the pupils are never alone on the school premises.* They are under the superintendence of the teachers, who, without controlling or embarrassing them by their presence (?), keep a strict watch over their words, actions, and general demeanour. Of all regulations this is the most important. The playground is the school for moral instruction, and on that account requires the teacher's presence even more than the school-room. . .No whispering or communication of any kind is permitted during school time. The lessons are allotted in accordance with the time and limit tables. All the changes of divisions in the central school are regulated by the clock in the Principal's room, to which the handles of the bells placed in each room of the building extend.

"At twelve the divisions are dismissed in regular order, the teacher whose turn it is to be in the yard, at once proceeds thereto. Those children who go home for dinner do so, and those who have brought theirs proceed to the dinner room, which in the winter is warmed and under the special care of the teachers. In the yards the boys and girls never play or mingle together, their yards, dinner rooms, &c. being separated by a high fence. They are never together, except in the presence of their teachers. In the central school, the boys and girls are in separate rooms, except the first division; the former come in and go out at the west end of the building into the street, the girls at the east. The children are required to go home whenever dismissed, and on no account to remain in the yard or in the street without permission. The teachers instruct their pupils how to go home and come to school, and see that these things are attended to, so far as each of their divisions is concerned. . .Paradoxical as it may appear, fewer associations are formed in the central school, with its 1,100 pupils, than might be formed in a school of 50 pupils, and instead of affording a better opportunity for influencing for evil the pupils attending, it almost entirely precludes the possibility of doing it. The facts are as follows. In its management, control, and teaching each division is entirely separated from the other; they are only together in the yard, and even then in the presance of a teacher. Once a month each pupil takes his or her seat in the division according to the credit marks of the preceding month. In 19 cases out of 20 the two who occupy the same desk this month will have other partners next month, and perhaps never

again sit beside their former desk-fellows. Twice a year promotion takes place from each lower to each higher division; this breaks up the division entirely, as from 40 to 60 per cent. of each division are therefrom removed. Each division is separately lined in the yard and marched into school, and again separately dismissed; thus the tendency is to break up any associations already existing and to preclude the possibility of forming new ones. There are hundreds attending the central school who never speak to one another; if they know the division to which they belong, that comprehends the extent of their knowledge respecting them. Those who are acquainted at home, and those only, are bosom companions at school."*

General character of Canadian discipline.

Such is the picture of the Canadian school system at work at Hamilton, whose central school is pronounced by competent witnesses "the best in the province," and one that they would "like "to see used as a *model* for the cities of Canada."† I cannot help thinking, however, that the Superintendent, in his anxiety to vindicate the free school system from the reproach of corrupting tendencies and to claim for it a higher character for purity and virtue than would ordinarily be found within the precincts of a private school, somewhat overstates his case. I did not see the Hamilton Central School in operation; but of those Canadian schools which I did see, the feature that struck me most forcibly, from its marked contrast to what I had just left behind me in the States, was—perhaps I ought not to call it the *laxity*, but the *freedom* of their discipline. Slovenliness would be a harsh word to use, and would express more than I mean; but certainly there was a want of precision and of order as unlike as possible the almost military simultaneity of movement which characterizes a New York school, and very much more like the loose drill that passes for discipline in schools in England. Both systems have their advantages and disadvantages, and I should be sorry to sacrifice the freedom of an English playground for the most perfect order produced by mechanical restraints; but if Dr. Ormiston's picture be drawn to life, a more wretched little being than a Hamilton schoolboy "never left alone on the school premises," never mixing with his schoolfellows "except in the presence of his teachers," with "any associations already existing broken up," and "the possibility of forming new ones precluded," it is difficult to conceive. Such an amount of repressive discipline, one would think, must either be the fruitful parent of deceptive tendencies in those subjected to it, or else distort that natural growth of character

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* *Report of the Public Schools for the city of Hamilton for* 1861, pp. 46–49.

† A. B. Edmison, of Peterborough, C. W. says, "I have visited all the "best schools in Canada, and should, if asked, pronounce the Hamilton "Central School the best in the province." D. McD. Hearns, of Toronto, remarks, "I look upon this institution as an illustration of the good taste "and the ambition of the citizens of Hamilton, and should like to see it used "as a model for the cities of Canada" (*Ibid.* p. 54). Unfortunately, though perhaps not in relation to their schools, the citizens of Hamilton have been a little *too* ambitious.

which, if not free, is pretty sure to be deformed. But I accept the description with a considerable discount, and understand it to convey nothing more than that it is desired by the managers of the school that the greatest possible watchfulness should be exercised by the teachers to prevent the silent upgrowth of any of those evils which, unless guarded against, might be likely to arise in a school of 1,100 pupils of both sexes and taken from different ranks in life. And this, I take it, from the fact that not more than 200 pupils are estimated to be in the private schools of the city, the methods of discipline pursued in the Hamilton schools secure.*

Character of instruction.

As it was vacation time when I visited Hamilton, I had no opportunity of estimating the character of Canadian instruction there.† The opinion I have formed of it I derived from what I saw in the schools at Toronto, at Ottawa, and at Clifton. The phenomena were so very uniform and similar, that even with so limited an experience one may venture to speak generally. I could not help being struck by the correspondence of the results produced by a Canadian school to those produced by an ordinary English elementary school, and by the contrast that both systems present to the more brilliant and showy, but perhaps less solid and permanent, acquirements of an American school. The range of subjects taught and learnt in the best schools in Toronto does not go beyond the standard of most of our town schools, nor indeed of many of our best village schools. Reading, writing, and cyphering, geography and history, English grammar, including etymology (to which much attention is paid with manifest advantage), the elements of geometry, algebra, and mensuration, a little drawing and a little singing; that is all that I found constituting the circle of instruction in one of the most advanced Toronto schools.‡ The

Special features.

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* (*Report for* 1861, p. 10.) It is true there are said to be 840 children in the Roman Catholic Separate Schools; but the scruples that take them there are religious, rather than moral, ones. It is noticed "as a proof of the regularity "and efficiency of the system, that, while the names of the pupils are on the "roll, the average number of absentees is only one in fifteen, not more, cer-"tainly, than may reasonably be expected in view of occasional ill health and "inclement weather. The demoralizing practice of truancy is scarcely known" (*Ibid.* p. 11).

† I found, however, on my visit to the central school building, the senior boy in the classical department studying by himself in one of the class-rooms, for the sake of using the books of reference, wilh a view to matriculation at Toronto University. He was a remarkably ingenuous youth, and made no objections to my giving him a little examination. I found that he could translate fairly passages from the Iliad and Æneid which he had seen; but his attempt to render into English half a dozen fresh lines from either poet was less satisfactory. But classical scholarship has hardly reached a higher point in Canada than it has reached in America, and the grammar school (as will be pointed out more fully hereafter), is at present the most undeveloped part of the Canadian system.

‡ The time per week devoted to these subjects I ascertained to be as follows: Reading (including matter read and questions thereon) four lessons of an hour each; arithmetic, five lessons of an hour; writing (including book-keeping), four lessons of 50 minutes; grammar (including composition, analysis of sentences, parsing and etymology), five lessons of an hour; geography and history taken alternately, each two lessons of 50 minutes; algebra, Euclid, and mensuration together, four lessons a week of an hour; drawing, singing, drilling, one lesson a week, each of an hour.

chief specialities of the Canadian methods were long lessons, generally a continuous hour to each subject; in reading, the requirement that the pupils should possess themselves of the *matter* of the lesson; in teaching grammar, the stress laid on the distinction between prefixes, roots and affixes, and on etymology generally; and, generally, the discouragement given to rapid answering and the time allowed for reflection and thought. Entering a Canadian school, with American impressions fresh upon the mind, the first feeling is one of disappointment. One misses the life, the motion, the vivacity, the precision—in a word, the brilliancy. But as you stay, and pass both teacher and pupils in review, the feeling of disappointment gives way to a feeling of surprise. You find that this plain, unpretending teacher has the power, and has successfully used the power, of communicating real, solid knowledge and good sense to those youthful minds, which, if they do not move rapidly, at least grasp, when they do take hold, firmly. If there is an appearance of what the Americans call "loose ends" in the school, it is only an appearance. The knowledge is stowed away compactly enough in its proper compartments, and is at hand, not perhaps very promptly, but pretty surely, when wanted. To set off against their quickness, I heard many random answers in American schools; while, *per contra* to the slowness of the Canadian scholar, I seldom got a reply very wide of the mark. The whole teaching was homely, but it was sound. I chanced to meet a schoolmaster at Toronto who had kept school in Canada, and was then keeping school at Haarlem, New York, and he gave Canadian education the preference for thoroughness and solid results. Each system—or rather I should say the result of each system, seems to harmonize best with the character of the respective peoples. The Canadian chooses his type of school as the Vicar of Wakefield's wife chose her wedding-gown, and as the Vicar of Wakefield chose his wife, "not for a fine glossy surface, but for such qualities as will wear well." I cannot say, judging from the schools which I have seen—which I take to be types of their best schools—that their choice has been misplaced, or that they have any reason to be disappointed with the results. I speak of the general character of education to which they evidently lean. That the actual results should be unequal, often in the widest possible degree, is true of education under all systems, everywhere.

The religious difficulty.

One of the most interesting features in the Canadian system, is the way in which it has endeavoured to deal with what we find to be one of our most formidable difficulties, the religious difficulty. In Canada it has been dealt with by the use of two expedients; one by prescribing certain rules and regulations, which it was hoped would allow of religious instruction being given in the schools without introducing sectarianism or hurting consciences; the other by permitting, in certain cases, the establishment of "separate," which are practically denominational, and in fact Roman Catholic, schools. I will describe, as briefly as I can, the expedients themselves, and the effects of them.

Regulations for religious instruction.

In their general regulations for the organization, government, and discipline of common schools, prescribed by the Council of

Public Instruction for Upper Canada, are to be found the following sections bearing upon the subject of religious and moral instruction.* As the point is important, I quote them *in extenso.*

" As Christianity is the basis of our whole system of elementary education, that principle should pervade it throughout. The Upper Canada Consolidated Common School Act,§ 129, securing individual rights, as well as recognizing Christianity, provides that in any model or common school established under this Act, 'No person shall require any pupil in any such school to read or 'study in or from any religious book, or to join in any exercise of 'devotion or religion, objected to by his or her parents or guardians; but, within this limitation, pupils shall be allowed to 'receive such religious instruction as their parents or guardians 'desire, according to any general regulations provided for the 'government of Common Schools.'

Minute of October 3, 1850.

" In the section of the Act thus quoted, the principle of religious instruction in the schools is recognized, the restrictions with which it is to be given are stated, and the exclusive right of each parent and guardian on the subject are secured.*

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* *See Trustees' School Manual,* p. 129–130.

* The following are the forcible remarks of Dr. Ryerson, the Chief Superintendent, on this subject. " The State is not the individual parent of the child, " nor is the State the Christian church, nor was it intended to supersede either " the parent or the church. . . . Though religion is essential to the " welfare of the State, and even to the existence of civil government and civil " liberty, the State is not the divinely appointed religious instructor of the " people. Nor can the State perform that work without determining the kind " of religious instruction to be given, and appointing the religious instructors. " This may be done where the State is the Church, and the Church the State, " as in the Roman States of Italy and in Turkey; but it is at the expense of " all civil and religious liberty on the part of the people. It may also be done " where but one form of religion is established and supported by the State, " and where the clergy are officers of the State, but in such circumstances " there is no provision for dissentients, educationally or religiously, except at " the expense of their religious rights and convictions. In none of these cases " is there any instance in which civil or religious freedom has been enjoyed, " or the people of a country educated; on the contrary, in every instance, the " mass of the people have grown up in ignorance, and in most instances a " Government of absolute and oppressive despotism has prevailed.

" There remain three other alternatives. The first is to do as has been done " in some of the neigbouring States, to ignore religion altogether in a system " of public instruction, an example that I should lament to see followed, " or even to think of as necessary, in Upper Canada. The second is to com- " mit the public schools to the care of the religious denominations, as has been " attempted in England, where 600,000*l.* sterling is granted by Parliament for " elementary education, and where there are only 700,000 children in the " schools out of upwards of 4,000,000 children of school age." [It is unnecessary to point out the incompleteness of this statement, though the natural inference of a person unacquainted with the facts would be that the Government-aided schools with their 700,000 children were the only 'public schools' in England in which education is offered to the labouring classes by 'the religious denominations.' The Duke of Newcastle's Commission established the fact that the proportion of scholars in the week-day schools of England and Wales to the entire population in 1858–9 was one in 7·7, or 12·99 per cent., and that in addition to 9,378 schools liable to the inspection of the Committee of Council on Education, containing 1,101,545 scholars, there were 13,362 public

" The common school being a *day* and not a *boarding* school, " rules arising from domestic relations and duties are not required, " and as the pupils are under the care of their parents and guardians " on Sabbaths, no regulations are called for in respect to their " attendance at public worship." Such was the Minute of 3d " October 1850.

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elementary day schools, or 22,740 in all, connected with these religious denominations, 76 per cent. of which were in connexion with the Church of England, on which, in addition to the aid from the Parliamentary grant, the sum of 1,121,981*l.* was expended in the year 1858, the very year in which Dr. Ryerson's remarks were penned (*See Commissioners' Report*, vol. i. pp. 573, 574, 581). The principle of denominationalism was not devised by the Committee of Council, but accepted by them as an existing fact. But to return.] " The third alter- " native is for the State to provide for the education of the youth of all re- " ligious persuasions in *secular subjects*, and at the same time to provide " facilities by which such religious instruction may be given to the children of " each religious persuasion as is desired and provided for by their respective " parents and pastors. This is the system which was proposed and established " for Ireland in 1831, but which now exists in only 1600 out of the " 5,000 schools aided by the National Board of Education in Ireland. This is " the system which has been established in Upper Canada, and which now " prevails, with the single exception of the 104 —(120 in 1863)—separate " schools. In this system, as was the case in Ireland in regard to all the " national schools, the Commandments are taught, the daily exercises of the " school are allowed and recommended to open and close with a recognition of " Almighty God in such form of thanksgiving and prayer as the authorities of " each school prefer, but no pupil is compelled to join in them contrary to the " wish of his parents or guardians; the rights of conscience in regard to each " child are equally protected; each parent's authority and wishes are supreme " on the subject, and provision is made by which each child may receive re- " ligious instruction according to the wishes of his parents or guardians, and " from his own pastor or his authorized representative. The authorities of " each school decide what version of the Scriptures shall be read at the open- " ing and close of the daily exercises of the school, or whether any version " shall be used. The form of prayer prepared for the convenience of local " school authorities who wish to use them consists of collects and petitions, " which are used alike in both Roman Catholic and Protestant churches; but " it is at the discretion of the authorities of each school to use that or any other " form of prayer they think best. There is no compulsion in the matter, nor " has the State any right to compel in matters of religion. The State aids " parents in teaching their children the *secular subjects* of a necessary educa- " tion during six or seven hours each week-day, but the *religious part* of the " education of children, as well as their food and clothing, and their " education during more than two-thirds of each week-day and the whole of " Sunday, must rest exclusively with parents and their clergy, who, both by " the injunctions of Scripture and their respective books of faith and dis- " cipline, are required to teach their children their catechisms, and 'bring them " up in the nurture and admonition of the Lord'" (*Report for* 1857, p. 18-20.) There is some rhetorical and logical straining here. The argument presupposes the existence of more power and will in parents to give religious instruction to their children than is generally found to be the case; and the concession of children to their parents for " education *during more than two-* " *thirds of each week-day*" seems to forget the necessity of meals and almost encroaches on the hours that general consent allots to sleep. Still, such is the theory of the system; that it is not so effective in practice as it looks upon paper will be seen presently. The system, it seems, has been tried in two places, Ireland and Upper Canada. In Ireland, Dr. Ryerson says most of the schools have become denominational; in Canada the schools are nearly all, practically, secular. It looks, therefore, as if there was no practical alternative —no *via media*—between the two.

In 1855 a further step was taken in the direction of greater definiteness. A minute was adopted which recommended that "With a view to secure the Divine blessing and to impress upon "the pupils the importance of religious duties, and their entire "dependence on their Maker, the daily exercise of each common "school should be opened and closed by reading a portion of Scrip- "ture and by prayer. The Lord's Prayer alone, or the Forms of "Prayer hereto annexed may be used, or any other prayer pre- "ferred by the trustees and master of each school.* But the "Lord's Prayer should form part of the opening exercises, and the "Ten Commandments be taught to all the pupils, and be repeated "at least once a week. But no pupil should be compelled to be "present at these exercises against the wish of his parent or "guardian, expressed in writing to the master of the school." Minute of February 13, 1855.

An additional minute was adopted in 1857, giving the clergy of the different denominations a *right* of access to the schools, for the purpose of giving religious instruction, which, however well intended, has proved, with not more I believe than two excep- Minute of April 22, 1857.

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* The following are the recommended forms, than which nothing can be better.

FORMS OF PRAYER.

Before entering on the business of the day.

O Lord, our Heavenly Father, Almighty and Everlasting God, who hast safely brought us to the beginning of this day, defend us in the same by Thy mighty power; and grant that this day we fall into no sin, neither, run into any kind of danger, but that all our doings may be ordered by Thy governance, to do always that is righteous in Thy sight, through Jesus Christ our Lord. *Amen.*

O Almighty God, the giver of every good and perfect gift, the Fountain of all wisdom, enlighten, we beseech Thee, our understandings by Thy Holy Spirit, and grant that whilst with all diligence and sincerity we apply ourselves to the attainment of human knowledge, we fail not constantly to strive after that wisdom which maketh wise unto salvation; that so through Thy mercy we may daily be advanced, both in learning and godliness, to the honour and praise of Thy Name, through Jesus Christ our Lord. *Amen.* Our Father, &c. The Grace of our Lord Jesus Christ, &c.

At the close of the business of day.

Most Merciful God, we yield Thee our humble and hearty thanks for Thy fatherly care and preservation of us this day, and for the progress which Thou hast enabled us to make in useful learning. We pray Thee to imprint upon our minds whatever good instructions we have received, and to bless them to the advancement of our temporal and eternal welfare; and pardon, we implore Thee, all that Thou hast seen amiss in our thoughts, words, and actions. May Thy good Providence still guide and keep us during the approaching interval of rest and relaxation, so that we may be prepared to enter on the duties of the morrow with renewed vigour both of body and mind; and preserve us, we beseech Thee, now and for ever, both outwardly in our bodies and inwardly in our souls, for the sake of Jesus Christ, Thy Son, our Lord.

Lighten our darkness, we beseech Thee, O Lord; and by Thy great mercy defend us from all perils and dangers of this night, for the love of Thy only Son, our Saviour, Jesus Christ. *Amen.* Our Father, &c. The Grace, &c.

We have seen that these Forms of Prayer are recommended for adoption in the schools of the State of Rhode Island.

tions, practically inoperative. The terms of the Minute are as follows:

"That in order to correct misapprehension, and define more clearly the rights and duties of trustees and other parties in regard to religious instruction in connexion with the common school, it is decided by the Council of Public Instruction that the clergy of any persuasion, or their authorized representatives, shall have the right to give religious instruction to the pupils of their own church, in each common school-house, at least once a week, after the hour of four o'clock in the afternoon; and if the clergy of more than one persuasion apply to give religious instruction in the same school-house, the trustees shall decide on what day of the week the school-house shall be at the disposal of the clergyman of each persuasion, at the time above stated. But it shall be lawful for the trustees and clergymen of any denomination to agree upon any hour of the day at which such clergyman or his authorized representative may give religious instruction to the pupils of his own church, provided it be not during the regular hours of the school."

This Minute, says Dr. Ryerson, was drawn up "on the "application of a Roman Catholic Clergyman, who afterwards "expressed his satisfaction with it, as have all the Protestant "Clergymen with whom I have conversed on the subject."*

The Minute inoperative,

If, however, the Protestant clergy are satisfied with the minute, they do not, and I think it is a matter much to be regretted that they do not, use their privilege. I could only learn of two cases, one in Toronto, and the other in Hamilton, in which the clergy regularly visit the schools for the purpose of giving religious instruction to children of their own persuasion. They probably are satisfied with the opportunity of the Sunday school; or else put forward the plea, that as the visit must be "after the regular "school hours" the children would be jaded by their previous six hours' work, and would be in no humour, nor indeed in any condition, to receive religious instruction.

yet open to modification.

The Minute is indeed apparently peremptory in its requirement that these clerical visits should be paid "after the regular "school hours," and even goes so far as to name the very hour of the afternoon before which they may not be made. But as it is in the power of the trustees to determine what the number of the regular hours of school teaching shall be, and the "4 o'clock" clause of the minute seems to be modified by a permission that comes after, the rule need not be, and is not, so unyielding in practice. In Hamilton the clergy do regularly attend and the hour assigned to them is from 3 to 4.† In Toronto in

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* *Report for* 1857, p. 20.

Arrangements at Hamilton.

† "Every facility is given to the clergymen of all denominations, who wish to attend to this matter. All the protestant ministers of the city take a very lively interest in the subject. Eight months ago the Board arranged that one hour per week, from 3 to 4 p.m. on Friday, should be set apart for religious instruction by any of the clergy, who would

the only two cases where a like desire on the part of clergymen, in this instance clergymen of the Church of England, has been expressed, a like concession has been made. I have little doubt that if the clergy as a body were to throw themselves into the system and support it, instead of standing aloof from it as they now mostly do, the Council of Public Instruc-

Attitude of the clergy.

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wish to give it. Without a single exception, all of them, episcopalians, presbyterians, methodists, congregationalists, and baptists, have at no small inconvenience and labour, attended at the central school at the time appointed. It was thought by some persons that the attendance of the ministers would be more or less irregular; quite the contrary has been the fact. The interest evinced by them all is very gratifying; from it results the most beneficial may be anticipated, as the children grow up personally acquainted with their pastors. At 3 o'clock all the children, whose parents desire them to be placed under any of these gentlemen, assemble in the room set apart by the Principal for his use, and spend the hour as the minister may consider most conducive to their spiritual improvement. Should the minister not present himself, the class is dismissed at 10 minutes past 3" *Report of Hamilton Schools for* 1861, p. 44). In the Report for 1863, it is said that "the plan continues to give general satisfaction," and "it is hoped that this *most important* feature of our schools may be extensively introduced," p. 7. In 1865 I was informed that the arrangement was still working successfully.

The following correspondence, also, will be read with interest:

"To the Chairman and Members of the Board of Trustees of the Common Schools of the City of Toronto.

112 Winchester Street,

GENTLEMEN, September 29, 1863.

Having an hour at my disposal every week, I am anxious to employ it in giving a little religious instruction to the Church of England children assembling at the Park School in this city. The law, as it now stands, will only allow me to carry out my wish after school hours; but, though I am willing to attend at any reasonable time, it seems to me that, after 4 o'clock, the minds of the children would not be in a fit state to profit by anything that I could say. My object, therefore, in the present communication is to ascertain whether any plan can be devised for giving me the opportunity which I desire at some earlier period in the day. It has been suggested to me, that to meet the wishes of the clergy in Hamilton, the common school there is closed at 3 o'clock, on one day of the week. Perhaps the legal difficulty which prevents me from acting might be overcome by a similar arrangement for the city of Toronto.

I have the honour, &c.

(Signed) SAMUEL J. BODDY,

Minister of the Cemetery Chapel, Toronto."

The Committee on School Management in their Report No. 8 adopted on November 3rd, report "that they have under consideration the Rev. Mr. "Boddy's communication; and considering it to be advisable that the clergy "of all Protestant denominations should be brought into immediate association "with the city schools, as much as possible, recommend that the vacant room "in the Park School be placed at the disposal of Mr. Boddy, say from 3 to "4 o'clock each Friday, for the purpose stated in his note" (*Report of Toronto Schools for* 1863, p. 50). Mr. Boddy was still giving this instruction in 1865, I was told by the mistress of one of the schools he attends, with the happiest results. It is much appreciated both by children and parents. Parents, not of the Church of England, have expressed a wish that their children should attend. I was told by some of the clergy that the cause of the popularity of the teaching was that it was biblical only, not dogmatic. Whether that is really an objection to it, each reader will determine according to his prepossessions.

tion would be ready to receive from them any suggestion calculated to make the Minute of 22nd April 1857 a really effective provision for "securing that proper commingling of the "religious element in the secular training" of the young, which even the most earnest supporters of the Canadian system seem to feel is the "one thing" lacking to it.* But, as yet, no steps likely to lead to an accommodation beyond the isolated action of one or two individuals or a single community, have been taken on either side. And thus, while the quarrel† turns mainly on points of theory which might, perhaps, be adjusted in conference, the great practical interests of religion and Christianity, which all are equally concerned to preserve, are lost sight of, or fall to the ground. For my own part I cannot understand the apparent desire that exists on so many sides to thrust this religious question in the great matter of education into corners of theoretical difficulty, which it is easy to construct in a moment by injudicious and unnecessary Minutes and intemperate, intolerant Resolutions. Even if religious instruction was absolutely forbidden, and the whole systen of national education so far secularized, I should still consider it part of my duty as a clergyman to visit my parish school in the hope that even the occasional presence of a minister of the Gospel might impart to the instruction given a tone that else, haply, might not be there. "They talk of separating reli-"gious and secular teaching," I remember to have heard, once said the earnest Arnold: "I can't understand them. Give *me* a "lesson to teach in geography and I will make it religious." If the Canadian system is "godless"—an epithet which I myself should be sorry to apply to it—it does not become less so from the fact that it invites, but does not receive, the countenance and co-operation of the clergy.

Extent to which religious instruction is given.

It is not very easy to state with any accuracy to what extent religious instruction is given in the Upper Canadian schools, or how far the recommendations of the Council of Public Instruction on the subject of opening and closing school with reading of Holy Scripture and prayer are complied with. Of course the authority in the matter rests wholly with the trustees; the practical effect of

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* "*Could we but secure* the proper commingling of the religious element in "the secular training of the rising generation, the most pleasing anticipations "of the future may be fully realized" (*Dr. Ormiston's Report of Hamilton Schools for* 1861, p. 45).

† I call it a "quarrel," and I hardly think I have used too strong a word. I have before me "Seven letters on the non-religious common school system of Canada and the United States, by Adam Townley, presbyter of the diocese of Toronto, 1853," in which the Chief Superintendent's Report for 1851 is called "an insult to the ministry of all denominations in the Province," and a "denunciation before the public of those ministers and that very numerous and "intelligent portion of the lay community who venture to differ from his most "unscriptural doctrines," and he is called upon "henceforth to fight his "battles with those who desire denominational schools, on honest grounds." pp. 4, 10. Dr. Ryerson on his side seems to accuse clergymen, magistrates, judges with "inditing charges against the public schools" (*Report for* 1857, p. 28, quoted above p. 226, note†). See also *Report on Separate Schools*, p. 15.

what may be authorized depends wholly on the teacher. In the Chief Superintendent's Report for 1863 there are extracts from the Reports of 152 of the 341 local Superintendents who have the supervision of the schools in Upper Canada. Many of them do not notice the subject at all; those that do notice it do not paint a cheerful picture. I have read them carefully through, and I will quote in the foot-note every passage bearing upon the point; the reader will then be in a position to draw his own conclusions.* It is evident to me that what is understood as "religious

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* As the Reports are all numbered, I will refer to the figure, and so make it unnecessary to mention the names of either persons or places. The figures omitted in the series indicate the report in which the subject is unnoticed. Reports of religious instruction.

3. "I regret that so many of our schools are opened and closed without invoking the divine blessing. Had the Council of Public Instruction enjoined, instead of recommended, it, I think it would be more generally attended to."

7. "Religious instruction is very much neglected for the reasons above specified; and to insist upon a strict adherence to the general regulations, in a community comprising so many different denominations, would not, in my opinion, be at attended with any beneficial results."

8. "I am afraid there is almost utter neglect of religious instruction."

12. "Five of the schools were opened with prayer, and eight made use of the Scriptures. The more frequent reading of the Scriptures would decidedly raise the tone of morality in our schools."

13. No religious instruction is given in any of our schools, excepting what is imparted by the teacher."

15. "Most of the schools are opened and closed with prayer, and with good results, except in one or two instances, which may properly be termed mixed schools, and here dissatisfaction has been apparent."

17. "The recommendations of the Council, that the daily exercises of each common school be opened and closed by reading a portion of the scriptures, and by prayer, is followed in some instances, where Mr. or Miss Teacher happens to see the necessity of it; otherwise it is not. As there are no *binding* regulations with regard to religious instruction, every parent or guardian doing 'what is right in his own eyes,' the *general* regulations are, of couse, but partially followed. The result consequently must be evil."

18. "I have to regret that the general instructions with regard to religious instruction are not followed, and that more regard is not paid to this all-important part of the education of the rising generation. And I can see nothing to hinder this part of the instruction, except apathy on the part of the trustees and a want of zeal in the teacher."

19. "Religious instruction is almost universally neglected in schools."

22. "Religious instruction is in some instances given, and with good results."

23. "The law relative to religious instruction was only partially observed. But in so far as the teachers are concerned I have reason to believe that, with one exception, they discharged their duties in this respect with fidelity."

24. "The Bible in almost all schools is read every day, and the school is opened and closed with prayer."

29. "The regulations with regard to religious instructions are not followed, the young being taught in Sabbath schools and Bible classes."

36. "My report will show that the Scriptures are more or less used in all the schools; while, at the same time, in many the exercises are neither opened nor closed by prayer."

37. "The instructions regarding religious observances are only partially observed."

39. "Religious instruction in our schools is not strictly attended to."

43. "The regulations with regard to religious instruction are followed out, and with the best results."

instruction" in most cases is nothing more than the "exercise" (as it is called) of reading a portion of Scripture at the opening

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44. "I have to remark that the schools which are attended by children of different religions are seldom opened with prayer, and in such schools there is scarcely any religious instruction."

47. "Generally, I believe, the teachers observe the regulations in respect of religion; in some schools where it is reported that the Bible or New Testament is used, it is not read by the pupils, but by the teacher. In no instance, so far as I know, do the clergy of any persuasion make use of the right given them."

49. "I notice generally a neglect of an important principle—the awakening in the minds of the youth of our county a full sense of their religious and moral obligations, by a *direct*, instead of an *indirect*, application to their moral feelings."

53. "I find that the regulations in regard to religious instruction are not followed."

54. "On account of the mixed population, religious exercises and reading of the Scriptures are dispensed with in most of the schools."

55. "The regulations in regard to religious instruction are not usually followed. In a large majority of the schools prayer is never heard, nor the scriptures read. The result is a great want of religious principle in the youth of the country."

56. "The instructions with regard to religion are generally attended to, but I cannot say with what results."

57. "The regulations in regard to religious instruction are generally observed."

58. "I have pleasure in informing you that some attention is paid to religious instruction in the schools; that the Word of God is regularly read and prayer offered, either extemporaneously or according to the form prescribed. For this all-important object every facility is afforded by teachers and trustees."

62. "Religious instruction, as recommended, is also observed, and I think with good effect."

64. "It is gratifying to me to be enabled to draw your attention to the fact that of the 17 schools in this township the Bible is used in 16; in most cases is more than merely read, and in not a few of the schools most gratifying progress is being made by the pupils in Biblical knowledge. Indeed, some of the Bible classes taught every day in common schools in this township would, in the amount of sound scriptural knowledge communicated, do credit to the most advanced classes in the best-taught Sunday schools in the country, and I would unhesitatingly invite those who are so fond of stigmatizing our school system as 'godless' to come and examine some of these classes for themselves, and I feel no doubt that as many of them as are honest in their prejudice, will, on having done so, confess that much more than they thought may be effected through our common schools for the Christian education of the rising generation."

65. "Nearly all the schools are opened with prayer, and the Bible is read in quite the majority of them."

66. "The regulations as to religious instruction are very generally observed, and, I trust, with good results."

69. "If our system is not a Christian education, the fault is in those concerned in working it; the parents, the children, the trustees, the teachers, the visitors, the superintendents."

70. "In regard to religious instruction, there are 13 schools which report attention to the regulations, while in nine there is no religious instruction given. The Sunday schools, however, are numerous, and exert a beneficial influence."

73. "In regard to religious instructions, the regulations have not been carried out beyond the reading by the teacher of the Holy Scriptures and the use of the school forms of prayer. This has been observed in some of the schools. An improved morale and a better tone of religious feeling are observable in the

of the school, and that the great obstacle to anything more definite being attempted is the existence of sectarian jealousies, and the

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schools when a daily acknowledgment of God has been adopted by prayer and the reading of His Word."

74. "In most of the schools the Bible and Testament are used, and a majority of them are opened and closed by the usual forms of prayer. I repeat that I know of no instance in which a minister of any denomination has availed himself of the opportunity of imparting religious instruction to the children after school hours."

75. "There is no communication of religious instruction by any clergyman whatever in any of the schools of this municipality."

76. "There are some religious exercises in all the schools, but the regulations are not observed in any of them."

77. "As to the regulation regarding religious instruction being followed, and its results, not one of the sections takes any notice of it."

78. "So far as I can ascertain, the broad principles of morality and a belief in God are carefully inculcated in every school, though religious exercises are not engaged in to any great extent. This might be different, were it not that there are in this township a large number of Roman Catholics, who work harmoniously with us in promoting the interests of common school education. It appears to be the general opinion that it will be better for the country if the children are associated in acquiring an education, and that if the school authorities are careful not to meddle with the denominational belief of either class of people, it will be long before a separate school is heard of here."

79. "In most schools the regulations as to religious instruction are partly observed. It is easy to see that this law has a good effect on the minds and behaviour of the children."

80. "The regulations are followed in some of the schools, and where they are followed the results are beneficial."

84. "The regulations are being more universally followed. Eight of the schools are opened and closed with prayer, and in six sections the Bible and Testament are used, with excellent results. In my last report I could only report one school where religious instruction was given, and that was the best e had."

86. "The regulations are observed in most of the schools."

87. "The only religious instructions given have been reading a part of a chapter of the Bible (seldom accompanied with any remarks) and prayer."

88. "I cannot but lament the too great neglect of the religious element on the part both of teachers and others, especially parents and trustees."

89. "The general regulations are observed in some schools, in others not. The opinion appears to prevail among the rate-payers that religious instruction should be confined to the church, the Sabbath-school, and the fireside."

90. "The regulations are not generally followed, but there are religious services regularly held so as to accommodate all the people; and I find but very few of the houses without not only the Bible and religious books, but few indeed without family prayers and grace before meals. So that, in any case, the pupils are not destitute of religious instruction and impressions."

97. "In nearly all the schools the Bible or Testament is used for doctrinal purposes, and the schools are opened and closed with prayer. Beyond this no religious instruction is given, as denominationalism should have no place in the national schools."

98. "The regulations are generally observed in this township, as far as concerns the reading of Holy Scripture and the use of prayer at the opening and closing of school. I am not aware of any instance in which the pupils are instructed by a minister of religion after school hours."

99. "I am strongly convinced that where the recommended religious instructions are given, they prove highly beneficial. But some of the sections being composed of various religious sects, in these objections are made even against the prescribed forms of prayer."

resolution of people to regard rather the points in which they differ than those in which they agree,—a temper for which, so far

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103. "The Holy Scriptures are read in the majority of the schools. I am decidedly in favour of the Bible being read in our schools, without any gloss or comment from the teacher; for should he attempt to give an exegesis of the portions read, he will in all probability have it so leavened with sectarianism as to make it offensive to all other denominations but his own. There is no sectarianism in the Bible, therefore no valid objection can be urged against its being read where children of different denominations attend."

105. "The regulations are followed generally; but with what results I cannot say."

106. "In two of the schools, Nos. 1 and 4, prayer is offered at opening and closing; Nos. 2 and 4 use Bible and Testament; general religious instruction is given only in No. 4. Although I could not ascertain its immediate effect, I am sorry it is not more generally practised."

109. "Religious instruction is but little attended to. Now that Roman Catholics have such privileges in regard to separate schools, I think that the Bible should be made a *class-book* in our common schools, and thus supply a deficiency which must ere long be of vast injury to our country."

110. "The regulations as to religious instruction are but imperfectly carried out."

113. "Moral and religious instruction is the object of anxious and punctual care; and, I believe, with good results."

114. "In regard to religious instruction, the amount is very limited; the schools, however, are opened and closed with prayer."

115. "Religious instruction is followed with good success."

116. "Instruction given has to be modified to meet the wants of all, not giving offence to parents and guardians professing different religions. There being a Sabbath-school, the majority of the pupils attend when religious instruction is given, and I am happy to say there is a marked improvement in the behaviour of the children since its commencement." [This seems to be rather an exceptional case; the grafting of a Sunday school on the week-day school.]

121. "The schools (in the city of Kingston) are opened and closed with prayer, and the reading of the Scriptures; and a healthy, moral, and religious atmosphere pervades them."

124. "I was much pleased to find," it is the Bishop of Huron who writes of the schools at London, "that the business of each day was commenced with the reading of God's Word, and with prayer for the divine blessing."

131. "The school is opened in each section with reading the Scriptures, and in some, I believe, also with prayer. Where there are so many churches and Sabbath-schools, it has not been thought necessary for any sect to avail itself of the provision for imparting religious instruction to the young of its community in the school-room on week-days."

132. "The trustees are perfectly willing that religious instruction should be communicated in the way directed. With respect to the reading of the Scriptures, and prayer at the opening of the school, both are observed; and in the separate school there is no neglect in any way."

135. "As to the regulations, none of the clergymen or others visit the school for that purpose; but the teachers and myself do what we can."

136. "In some of our departments the Bible is read, and in others the prescribed form of prayer is used. Where this is done in a devotional spirit it is received with propriety, and therefore with good effect; but whenever a teacher is not imbued with this feeling, the Bible had better be excluded than gabbled over with irreverence."

137. "I am sorry to hear that a separate school has been proposed; however, the separation will have the good effect of opening the Protestant school now to the study of the Bible."

139. "The regulations are followed. It is difficult, if not impossible, to say anything in reference to immediate results, but I feel sure that all the teachers are interested in the moral and religious well-being of their pupils."

as I know, no remedy has yet been discovered in Canada or in England.

The permission under certain circumstances to establish separate, that is, denominational, schools, is a peculiar feature of the system both of Upper and Lower Canada. Dr. Ryerson thinks that the admission of the principle is a thing to be regretted, though at the same time he considers that the disadvantages which it entails entirely rest with those who avail themselves of its provisions, and he would not desire to see any coercion used either to repeal or modify them.* Separate schools.

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141. "The school is opened and closed with prayer."

142. "No religious instruction is given to the children while in school, except incidentally, by the teachers. The children read from the Bible once a week."

144. "The regulations as regards religious instruction are not observed."

151. "We now commence and close the duties of the school with prayer. I hope my next report will show that the Bible has been introduced, and instruction given from it."

* Dr. Ryerson's views on the subject are to be found in his Report for 1857. Dr. Ryerson's views on separate schools.

"However it may be regretted that the principle of separate school education "was admitted into the common school law, I see no justifiable ground for "depriving the Roman Catholics of the legal rights and powers which have "been granted them, and which they are unwilling to relinquish, though "they are the chief, if not the only, parties that suffer various disadvantages "from placing their children in inferior schools, and isolating them from the "rest of the youth of their age, with whom they have in after life to act in the "social, civil, political, commercial, and other business affairs of life. Isolated "from the rest of the community during the whole period of their education, "they enter into the connexions and competitions of business, and compete "for elections and other distinctions, almost as strangers, and aliens, and "foreigners, in the very place of their birth. In isolating their children from "intellectual competitions and friendships with the other children of the land "during their schoolboy days, Roman Catholic parents place their children at "the greatest disadvantage in commencing the race and pursuing the prizes of "life. It is on this account, and almost on this account alone, that the exist-"ence of separate schools is to be regretted. But if the parties to whom "power of establishing separate schools has been given will not relinquish it, "I do not think that coercion is advisable, or that it can be employed without "aggravating what it is desired to remedy. I know not," continues the Chief "Superintendent, "that more could have been done than was done in succes-"sive Acts, to prevent the necessity, or even desire, for separate schools. The "rights of conscience of all parties were equally and effectually protected by "law; a Roman Catholic prelate was a member and the elected chairman of "the Provincial Board of Education; he was an assenting party to the "general regulations for managing the schools. No instance of proselytism "occurred in the schools, or to my knowledge has occurred in them to this "day; *in not one of the cities or towns of Upper Canada were there religious "exercises, or the reading of the scriptures,* or any other than the National "(Irish) School books in the schools; and a fair proportion of Roman Catholic "teachers were employed. Yet, separate schools have been established in all "these cities and towns, and the Roman Catholic youth have been isolated "from their fellow youth of other classes of the community, and the Roman "Catholic electors have lost the (but which they can reclaim at any time) right "of franchise in the election of trustees for the public schools. The result has "been in regard to the public schools, the introduction of the Bible and "prayers in most of them, and a great improvement in their character, "efficiency, and school-house accommodation." (This last result, I should think, must be rather *post hoc,* than *propter hoc.*) "If any disadvantage "had arisen to the public school from the establishment of separate schools in

The original permission for the establishment under certain circumstances of separate Protestant and Roman Catholic schools—for it is assumed throughout the legislation on this subject that this rough division into two denominations will meet all the exigencies of the case, and the "varieties of Protestantism" are ignored—was among the provisions of the first School Act passed by the Legislature of the United Provinces at its first session in 1841.

The provisions applied equally to both sections of the United Province, but, as from the widely different circumstances of the two cases they were not found equally applicable to both, in 1843 an Amended Upper Canada School Act was passed, in which it was enacted—

Act of 1843.

"That in all cases wherein the teacher of any common school shall happen to be a Roman Catholic, the Protestant inhabitants shall be entitled to have a teacher of their own religious persuasion upon the application of 10 or more resident freeholders or householders of any school district or within the limits assigned to any town or city school; and in like manner when the teacher of any such school shall happen to be a Protestant, the Roman Catholic inhabitants shall have a separate school with a teacher of their own religious persuasion upon a like application."

Such application was to be made in writing signed with the names of the applicants, and delivered to the local Superintendent, and was to contain the names of three persons who should be trustees of such separate school; and such school was to be entitled to receive its share of the public appropriation according to the number of children of the particular persuasion who should attend it, and was to be subject to visitation and the other regulations affecting common schools.

The law thus enacted, underwent several modifications in detail in 1847, 1850, 1851, and 1855,* and was finally put upon its present footing in 1863. As things now stand, the power to establish a separate school is granted to Roman Catholics, Protestants, and coloured people, under, however, somewhat varying conditions.

Establishment of a Roman Catholic separate school.

A Roman Catholic separate school may be established whenever any number of persons, *not less than five*, being heads of families and freeholders or householders resident within any school section,

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"any of these municipalities, I dare say complaints would have been made by "them in some form to that effect. The disadvantage, in both an intellectual "and a pecuniary as well as in a social and civil point of view, appears to me "to be altogether on the side of those who voluntarily isolate themselves from "the rest of their fellow citizens" (*Report for* 1857, p. 24–5). It seems, however, to be implied in this passage that the "*status quo ante*," and the return of Roman Catholic children to the common schools could only be purchased by the renewed extrusion of that small amount of religious instruction which has crept into "most of the schools" since the separation. Dr. Ryerson's views of the disadvantages of separate schools to the Roman Catholics themselves are shared, I found, by Dr. Ormiston, of Hamilton.

* Dr. Ryerson notices the Act of 1855 as "being prepared under the auspices "of certain Roman Catholic Ecclesiastics," and as "being the first time that "Lower Canada influence was invoked and employed to control legislation on "the educational affairs of Upper Canada" (*Report on Separate Schools*, p. 14).

incorporated village, or town, or within any ward of any city or town, and being Roman Catholics, choose to convene a public meeting of persons desiring to establish a separate school for Roman Catholics in such school section or ward, for the election of trustees for the management of the same. A majority of the persons present, being freeholders or householders and Roman Catholics, may elect three persons resident within such school section or an adjoining section as trustees; and any person of the age of 21 years, being a British subject, may be elected trustee, whether a freeholder or householder or not.* Notice of such election of trustees and of the establishment of such school is to be given to the township reeve or to the chairman of the board of common school trustees.

Trustees thereof;

The trustees of a separate school have the same duties and responsibilities as the trustees of a common school. They form a body corporate, and have power to impose, levy, and collect school-rates or subscriptions upon and from persons sending children to, or subscribing towards, the support of such separate school; and for that purpose are entitled to have a copy of the assessment roll of the municipality.†

Supporters thereof;

Every person who gives notice in writing to the clerk of his municipality that he is a Roman Catholic and a supporter of a separate school in the said or a contiguous municipality shall be exempted from all common school rates in the said municipality so long as he continues to be a supporter of such separate school; but no person shall be deemed such a supporter unless he resides within three miles, in a direct line, of the site of the school-house.

What funds such school may and may not share.

Such a separate school is entitled to a share in the annual legislative grant (to be determined by the Chief Superintendent of Education), and in all other public grants, investments, and allotments for common school purposes now made or hereafter to be made by the province or municipal authorities, according to its average number of pupils attending during the preceding 12 months; but it is not entitled to a share of any money accruing from annual local assessment for common school purposes within the city, town, village, township, or county within which it is situate.

Judges, members of the Legislature, heads of municipal bodies, the Chief Superintendent and the local Superintendent of common schools, and clergymen of the Roman Catholic Church are visitors of separate schools, and the local Superintendent has a right to superintend them, unless a separate superintendent is appointed. Separate schools are also subject to such inspection as may be

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* Such election, however, becomes void unless the separate school is established within three months from the election of such trustees (*Act of* 1865, 26*th Victoria*, chap. 5., s. 24).

† The amount allowed to be levied by rate-bill on pupils attending must not exceed 25 cents a month, as is the limit imposed in the case of common schools.

directed by the Chief Superintendent, and their Trustees are to make a half-yearly return to him.*

Advantages of this Act to Roman Catholics.

* The chief supposed advantages to Roman Catholics in this Act, which was passed, as stated in the preamble, on the ground that "it is just and proper to "restore to Roman Catholics in Upper Canada certain rights which they "formerly enjoyed in respect to separate schools, and to bring the provisions "of the law respecting separate schools more in harmony with the provisions "of the law respecting common schools," are these. Previously, "supporters" of a separate school were bound to reside in the same section as the school, to be exempt from tax; now they may reside anywhere within a radius of three miles from the school. Previously, teachers trained or certificated in Lower Canada were not recognized as "duly qualified"; now they are. Previously, the claim of "supporters" for exemption from taxation was required to be annually renewed; such renewal is not now necessary.

The separate school cannot share in any tax or annual assessment; but if anything be set apart in the shape of an endowment either by the Government or the municipality, they are entitled to a share in that. When the Clergy Reserved Fund, therefore, is appropriated for school purposes in a municipality, the separate school, I presume, might claim a share in that. The Act of 1855 had reduced the number of applicants for the establishment of a separate school, which in the Act of 1850 had been enlarged to 12, from 10, the original number, to five.

It appears from Dr. Ryerson's statements that, up to 1852, a Roman Catholic separate school was only authorized by law where the teacher of the public school was a Protestant, and *vice versâ*; and that it was designed for, and was almost entirely confined to, places where the strong feelings often existing, (now said to be much mitigated), between Irish Protestants and Roman Catholics, did not permit them to unite in the school education of their children. But since 1852 the Roman Catholic hierarchy have taken up a different and much more hostile attitude towards the common school system. They have advocated separate schools as a rule of duty binding upon all their adherents and in all places. They have demanded their support by municipal taxation, and that according to the number of their Church population, and not according to the number of children they might teach, or even according to the number of those who might desire separate schools for their children. They have attacked the moral and religious character of the common schools. In support of these assertions, Dr. Ryerson quotes from the Official Circular of the Roman Catholic Bishop of Toronto the following strong language, "Catholic electors "in this country who do not use their electoral power in behalf of separate "schools are guilty of mortal sin, likewise parents who do not make the sacrifices "necessary to secure such schools, or who send their children to mixed schools. "Moreover, the confessor who would give absolution to such parents, electors, "or legislators as support mixed schools to the prejudice of separate schools, "would be guilty of mortal sin" (*Report on Separate Schools' Act*, p. 15). In spite, however, of these anathemas, the consciousness of the disadvantages under which they labour produces a strong disinclination on the part of the Roman Catholics in many neighbourhoods, to establish separate schools. I quote a few extracts from reports of local Superintendents for 1863, numbered as before.

Change of feeling in Roman Catholic hierarchy.

These feelings not always shared by Roman Catholic laity.

42. "We have but one separate school in the township, and that is by no means to be regarded as a light in a dark place. I think that the supporters of it would rather now that it had never existed."

73. "Under the new school regime of Port Colborne, a Roman Catholic separate school has been formed, which the Roman Catholics were not particularly anxious to establish, but did so chiefly because they did not relish the union of the two public schools, to one of which they for the most part belonged."

90. "In these sections, where the school was taught by Roman Catholics, the people, notwithstanding the establishment of separate schools, are some of

Protestant separate schools can only be established in a school section where the teacher of the common school is a Roman Catholic, on the application of 12 resident heads of families, being Protestants, to the municipal council, who are then bound to authorize the establishment of a separate Protestant school. And, in a similar way, 12 heads of families, being coloured people, may apply for and obtain a separate coloured school. Such schools are entitled to a share in the Legislative grant according to their yearly average number of pupils, but not in any school money raised by local assessment; and their supporters sending children to any such school, or subscribing thereto annually an amount equal to the sum at which such person would otherwise have been rated in order to obtain the annual Legislative school grant, are to be exempt from the payment of all rates imposed for the support of the common schools. Protestant coloured schools.

A certificate of qualification signed by the majority of the trustees is sufficient for the teacher of such a school. The trustees are required to send half-yearly returns to the Chief Superintendent.

It is, of course, admitted by the supporters of the common school system that the establishment of separate schools, whether Roman Catholic or Protestant, is an element of disunion and so of weakness, and in several places the maintenance of the common school has become a matter of difficulty.* And, though in some cases the separate schools are said to be able to bear a comparison with the common schools,† their general condition, I was Effect of separate schools.

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them so much opposed to them as to carry on the mixed schools, of which, in two instances at least, the supporters must mainly be Roman Catholics."

93. "There is one Roman Catholic separate school, which has been long established, and is continued, I believe, more for the sake of the convenience it affords to the immediate neighbourhood than from sectarian motives."

95. "The Roman Catholic separate school at Culross has become extinct; the people gave it up of their own accord. Sometime ago the Roman Catholic separate school at Carrick ceased to exist. It was in the midst of a population exclusively Roman Catholics, and its abandonment was not regretted; its supporters never had the countenance of their brethren."

* "There are now 14 common schools and four Roman Catholic separate schools in this township. Two of the latter were opened last year, and one of them, a handsome brick building, is in a very flourishing state of efficiency. The establishment of these separate schools has so weakened and crippled the common schools in some sections that they can only barely exist, with little expectation, for a long time to come, of being able to give up the old shanties for new buildings" (*Report for* 1863, p. 107).

"The more general establishment of Roman Catholic separate schools, of course, will occasion in some quarters difficulty to the supporters of both schools, or, I should say, of either" (*ibid.* p. 135). "The separate school in "that section has weakened the other; and besides, both parties have borne "the trouble and expenses of a law suit during last year" (*ibid.*, p. 144).

"The separate schools are working great injury to those who adopt them as well as to their neighbours. They disseminate no instruction worth the name of education, and would appear (in some instances at least) to be established as a means of evading the expense of supporting a properly conducted school" (*Report for* 1860, p. 158).

† "I have visited the separate schools this year, and found them to compare well with our common schools; but I am sorry to say I cannot speak flatteringly of the progress of the schools in these townships" (*ibid.*, p. 144).

informed, from the difficulty experienced in providing money for their support, is one of inefficiency. I believe there never were more then half-a-dozen Protestant separate schools in Upper Canada, and even these have disappeared from the Report of 1863, and the class has become, I therefore presume, extinct; and there are only reported thoughout this section of the province, 120 Roman Catholic separate schools, an increase, however, of 11 on the number of the previous year; 18 of these are in cities,—seven in Toronto and five in Ottawa; 22 in towns, 10 in villages, and the remainder in rural school sections. They educated in 1863, 15,859 pupils, and employed 171 teachers, at a total annual cost of $34,000, being at the rate of not quite $2 a scholar, on the number enrolled. Their total income amounted to $33,809, of which $8,178 arose from the annual Legislative grant, $13,945 from local rates levied by the trustees upon their supporters, and $11,684 from subscriptions and other sources.

Statistics of Roman Catholic separate schools.

The character of these schools can be best estimated from the return which gives the number of scholars in each subject taught.

It appears, then, that 15,000 pupils were learning to read; 8,196 to write; 7,953 to cipher; 4,413 were being taught grammar; 6,215, geography; 1,846, history; 463, book-keeping; 377, algebra; 320, geometry; 421, natural philosophy; 2,011, music.

Only 77 out of the 120 schools had maps; only 85 had black-boards; only one had apparatus.

Only 86 opened and closed with prayer; only 29 used the Bible.*

Of the teachers, 78 were males, 93 females; 14 of the former, and 38 of the latter, were members of religious orders.

The dates of their establishment are very various; but I observe that only nine were founded before the year 1852, when Dr. Ryerson states that the attitude of the Roman Catholic bishops and clergy towards the common school system was so completely changed. As the Act of 1863 is contemporaneous with the latest Report of the Chief Superintendent that is in my hands, I am not aware whether the recent modification of the law in their favour has given any fresh impulse to the desire to establish separate schools.†

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* The number of schools had risen from 109 in 1862 to 120 in 1863; but the number of those opening and closing with prayer fell from 92 to 86; and of those using the Bible, from 32 to 29. For all these statistics, see *Report for* 1863, p. 9, and *Table F.* p. 45.

† In 1863, their proportion to the number of common schools was as 1 to 34; the proportion of the number of children attending them to the number attending the common schools was as 1 to 23. The average cost per child was about one-half. The average salary of the teachers was $148 a year. Occasionally, as we have seen, the separate school is abandoned soon after its establishment. In 1860, there were reported to be 115; in 1862 thay had fallen to 109. In 1863 they had risen again to 120. Dr. Ryerson expresses a hope, based I know not on what grounds, that those who support "them will "see their mistake ere long," and return with their children to the bosom of the common school (*Report for* 1858, p. 25).

It is time now to speak of the Upper Canada grammar schools.

The idea of the grammar school, as we have already seen, was historically prior in its conception in Canada to the idea of the common school. So long ago as 1807 an Act of the Legislature established a classical and mathematical school in each of the eight districts into which Upper Canada was then divided, and endowed them with an income of £400 each. The present venerable Bishop of Toronto was the Principal of one of these original grammar schools. THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

The present county grammar school system, however, dates from 1853, and had, therefore, been in operation ten years at the date of the latest Report that is before me—the Report for 1863. It has been subjected more than once to modifications in detail; and a new set of stringent regulations were to come into operation on the 1st of January, in this present year (1866), for the purpose of infusing greater life and efficiency into what is felt to be still the most "feeble and defective part" in the organization of Canadian schools.

The intention of the grammar school, which is outside and independent of the common school system in almost every feature of its organization, and so far differs from an American high school, may be collected from the language of the Act which established it. Their object.

"There shall be one or more grammar schools in each county and union of counties in Upper Canada* in which provision shall be made for giving by a teacher or teachers of competent ability and good morals, instruction in all the higher branches of a practical English and commercial education, including the elements of natural philosophy and mechanics, and also in the Latin and Greek languages, and mathematics, so far as to prepare students for University College, or any college affiliated to the university of Toronto, according to a programme of studies and general rules and regulations to be prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada, and approved by the Governor in Council."

There is a fund, called "The Upper Canada Grammar School Fund," arising from the sale of public lands set apart for the encouragement of grammar schools and from annual grants made Grammar School Fund.

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* The grammar school, situated at the county town, is called the "Senior Grammar School" of the county. The law—or at least the law as edited by the education department—while directing that "there shall be" one such grammar school in each county, does not direct by whom it shall be established. As, however, the County Council can, at their discretion, establish additional grammar schools, and change the site of any grammar school within their municipality established since the passing of the Act, it may be presumed that the duty of establishing the first or senior grammar school devolves upon them. There is a limit to the power of establishing new grammar schools, in the state of the Grammar School Fund. "No new grammar school shall be "established until the state of the Grammar School Fund permits the applica- "tion of a sum equal to the least to £200 annually to such new school, after "deducting for each senior county grammar school the sum of £400, and for "each of the other grammar schools within the county the sum of £200 "annually" (*Grammar School Laws*, p. 14). Limit to the establishment of grammar schools.

by Parliament,* which is invested in government or other securities by the direction of the Governor in Council, the annual income of which is apportioned among the grammar schools by the Chief Superintendent of Education in the following way:

To each senior grammar school is appropriated the sum of $400, unless the average number of scholars be under 10, in which case the appropriation is reduced to $200.† This sum having been previously deducted, the residue of the annual income of the fund is apportioned by the Superintendent to the several counties according to the ratio of the population in each, and is distributed amongst the several grammar schools upon terms laid down from time to time by the Council of Public Instruction.‡ The apportionment to each county is paid half-yearly to the county treasurer, and must be expended upon the payment of teachers' salaries alone.

In some cases the amount received from the Legislative Grant is sufficient, or nearly sufficient, to maintain the grammar school.§ In other cases it is met by a municipal assessment, without the requirement, however, that is made in the case of common schools, that it should at least be equal to the sum granted from the school fund;‖ and a rate-bill is levied on the scholars in almost all the grammar schools.¶

Grammar School Fund.

* The amount of land which has been set apart for the encouragement of grammar schools is stated by Mr. Hodgins to be 258,320 acres, producing, either by its sale or rents, an annual income of about $23,000. The parliamentary grant seems to vary from $10,000 to $20,000. The total income of the grammar school fund in 1863 was $43,523.

† This is a previous appropriation to the senior grammar school, irrespective of its title to share, *pari passu*, with the other grammar schools, the subsequent apportionment.

New regulations of May, 1865.

‡ The conditions laid down in the new regulations of May, 1865, to come into operation January, 1866, are—i. The apportionment is to be made according to the average attendance at each grammar school of pupils learning the Greek and Latin language, to be certified by the head master and trustees, and verified by the inspector. ii. No grammar school shall be entitled to any apportionment unless suitable accommodations are provided for it, and unless it shall have a daily average attendance (times of epidemic excepted), of at least ten pupils learning Greek or Latin.

The object of these regulations is to restore grammar schools to their original character of classical schools. In many places they had lapsed into something lower even than the condition of a common school.

Grammar schools almost supported by Legislative Grant.

§ Thus, I observe that the grammar school at Kincardine received $400 from the Legislative grant, and raised $14·50 by fees, which added to a balance of $7·59, gave a total income in 1863 of $422·09. The expenditure of the same year was $420·61; the number of scholars being 37. At Sandwich the grant was $459, which added to $20 municipal assessment, and $5 balance, gave an income of $484; the expenditure was also $484; the number of scholars, 23.

Municipalities ought to raise equal amount.

‖ "Had the law provided as was proposed, and as has been urged from time to time, that the Grammar School Fund should be apportioned upon the same condition as the Common School Fund, viz., that each municipality receiving it should provide an equal sum, the resources of the grammar schools would have been augmented equally with their efficiency and usefulness" (*Report for* 1857, p. 8).

No limit to rate-bill.

¶ There is no limit as in the case of common schools an the amount of the rate-bill. It is left to the discretion of trustees. It appears to range from $1 to $8 per term of three months, and it is generally lower for residents than for non-residents. The average, perhaps, would be $4. Most of the master receive boarders; the charge is a matter of private arrangement.

Each grammar school is under the management of a board of trustees, consisting of "not less than six or more than eight fit "and proper persons" appointed by the County Council—two retiring by seniority each year, capable, however, with their own consent, of reappointment—who constitute a corporation, take charge of the grammar school, appoint and remove its teachers, erect, repair, and furnish its buildings, settle the amount of school-fees and fix the times of payment, and expend the money they so receive and collect in making up any deficiency in the salary of the teachers, and defraying any other necessary expenses of the school. They are also bound to see that the pupils of the school are supplied with proper text-books, that public half-yearly examinations are held, and generally that the school is conducted according to the regulations; and, further, to prepare and transmit before the 15th January in each year to the Chief Superintendent a report containing a full and accurate account of all matters appertaining to the school.

Trustees.

Their duties.

The municipal council of the county, township, city, town or incorporated village (as the case may be), are empowered from time to time to levy and collect by assessment such sums as it judges expedient, to purchase, rent, build, repair, furnish, warm, and keep in order grammar school-houses and their premises, and for procuring apparatus and text-books, and for providing the salary of the teachers, and for all other necessary expenses.

Duty of municipal council

It is just here that the first great hitch in the system occurs. The municipal council *may* levy such an assessment, but the law does not say they *shall;* and if they refuse, the trustees have no power, such as is possessed by the trustees of common schools, to collect a rate on their own authority; and many grammar schools are starved in consequence.* A special difficulty that meets them is the difficulty of providing suitable school-houses, the erection of which, of course, involves considerable expenditure.† And a result of this is that the trustees are often driven to avail themselves of that provision of the law which permits the union of a grammar with a common school, a step which appears from perfectly unanimous testimony to lead to the inevitable degradation and deterioration of the former,‡ with no counterbalancing advantage accruing to the latter.

A difficulty.

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* There were 95 grammar schools in the year 1863. Of these, no municipal assessment was levied for the support of no less than *forty*. Only nine raised nothing by rate-bill, or, in other words, were free.

† It is with a view of overcoming this difficulty, I presume, that the new regulations require "suitable accommodation to be provided for" the grammar school as a condition of its receiving its share of the Legislative Grant.

‡ The terms of the law are as follows: "The trustees of the grammar "school may employ in concurrence with the trustees of the school section, or "the board of common school trustees in the township, village, town, or "city in which such grammar school may be situate, such means as they may "judge expedient, for uniting one or more of the common schools of such "township, &c., or departments of them, with such grammar school; but no "such union shall take place without ample provision being made for giving "instruction to the pupils in the elementary English branches by duly quali-

Union schools.

Present condition of these schools.

Indeed, the condition of the grammar schools in Upper Canada up to the present time appears to have been most unsatisfactory, and, what is more, to have been growing from bad to worse from year to year.* They are far too numerous for the present wants

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" fied English teachers. And the schools thus united shall be under the " management of a joint board of grammar and common school trustees, who " shall consist and have the powers of the trustees of both the common and " grammar schools." It is provided, however, that " when the trustees of " the common school exceed six in number, six only of their number to be by " them selected shall be the common school portion of such joint board."

The idea of this union, I imagine, was taken from the school law of the State of New York, where, similarly, a union free school is allowed to affiliate to itself an academy or academical department. Its object was to secure a better gradation of schools, to weld the grammar school with the common school system of the municipality, and make it play the legitimate part of a high school. The only fear, apparently, was that the features of the common school might be obliterated by the grammar school, and hence the requirement of " provision being made for giving instruction in elementary English " branches." The result has been the exact opposite of the anticipation. The common school has proved the stronger, and has dragged the grammar school down to its level. Mr. Robertson, one of the inspectors, reports in 1858, that " the grammar school portion of the united schools is not flourishing, but is " gradually assuming the condition of a few pupils learning classics in a large " common school. I do not think that the grammar schools, while so united, " will ever attain the status to which they should aspire, viz., that of high " classical seminaries " (*Report for* 1857, p. 211). The motives to union, on the part of the trustees, are obvious enough; they are financial and economical chiefly. The two schools united can be conducted with a smaller teaching staff than the two separate, and hence can be made cheaper, while at the same time the union school draws on two public funds—the grammar and the common school funds—for its support, and so relieves the pockets of the local ratepayers. Inspector Checkley speaks of " the fraud, now not uncommon in the " case of union boards, of obtaining a master with a University degree or " grammar school certificate, and then requiring him to do common school " work, so that the board may be able to draw the double Government allow- " ance and save local taxation " (*Report for* 1863, p. 165).

* " Of the 41 grammar schools in this section of the province, says Mr. Robertson, " 11 were not in operation at the time of my visit; three of these were without teachers; three had been given up, and five may be said never to have been in existence. In four of the remaining 30 there were no classical pupils; in four others, the number learning the classics were either three or under; and in 12 instances they varied between 10 and 32, while in the remaining 10 schools, the classical pupils varied between three and 10; thus, in only 12 cases did the classical pupils exceed 10. It is evident that many of these establishments cannot possibly be considered grammar schools, and indeed they are situated in districts where well-conducted common schools would be of far greater utility.

" The teaching, discipline and general condition of several of the schools have improved; but, nevertheless, comparing the numbers of classical pupils in 1857 with those in the same schools in 1855, a positive falling off is observed in many instances; nor has a satisfactory progress been made in the advancement of the classes, which appear in various cases to have advanced no further in their classical studies than the stage they had reached two years previously; schools whose highest Latin class was in Cæsar or some equivalent book in 1855, containing no more advanced pupils in 1857. I do not attribute this circumstance to the teachers, but rather to the fact, that in several instances these schools are established in places where there exists little desire for classical knowledge, save on the part of very few, and then only for the small amount necessary to commence the study of some profession; and consequently the pupils are drafted off for a variety of pursuits, and their places supplied by beginners, and thus the classes seemingly never advance beyond a certain

of the community, and upon the principle that one sheep can be well kept where two would be starved, a limitation of them to one for a county, which would reduce the number from 95 to 42—perhaps even a greater reduction than that—would make them infinitely more efficient for the purposes contemplated in their establishment.* Their teachers in many cases, in spite of the requirements of the law fixing their qualifications, are reported to be incompetent for their position.† What the Americans call "partial courses" are too frequently, indeed, all but universally,

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stage of progress. Even those parents whose means and wishes would lead them to have their children prepared for matriculation in a University, not unfrequently prefer sending them to some distant seminary of established repute, or even to a private school in their neighbourhood. This is particularly evident where the grammar and common schools are united under one roof. There appears to exist a strong feeling against sending boys for classical instruction to a union school" (*Report for* 1857, p. 211).

Dr. Ryerson endorses these statements in his circular of May 1, 1865.

"From the inefficiency of the common schools at that time (1855), the grammar schools were still suffered to do common school work; *and the evil to the Grammar School has increased rather than diminished.* In the meantime the common schools have so improved as to be decidedly in advance of most of the grammar schools in teaching all the subjects of an ordinary English education; and to allow the grammar schools still to do common school work is not only at variance with the object of the Grammar School Fund, but is an infringement on the province of common schools, a very serious injury to them in many cases, is doing poorly what common schools do well, and is destroying the efficiency of grammar schools in their own legitimate work . . . In a large proportion of the grammar schools, the legitimate work of the grammar school constitutes the smallest part of their teaching; in some instances, is not done at all; and the time has now come when the common schools should be protected in the work which they are nobly doing, and the grammar schools should be made to do the work, and that alone, which is prescribed for them by law, and for which alone the Grammar School Fund was created" (*Journal of Education for April* 1865). This circular accompanied the new regulations of the Council of Public Instruction.

* "The results of the system would in my opinion be greater if the light were more concentrated, and instead of a multitude of small schools scattered over the province, each emitting but a feeble glimmer, a few institutions of a better description were established and well supported in the county and other principal towns. The time has come when the County Council should be restrained in the somewhat too arbitrary exercise of their discretion as to the multiplication of grammar schools" (*Mr. Inspector Checkley, in Report for* 1863, p. 165).

So, too, Dr. Ormiston: "There has been a tendency during the last few years unduly to increase the number of grammar schools in some counties; this arises from the laudable desire of one or two parties in each locality to secure for themselves and neighbours the privilege of a classical training for their sons, without sending them from home. This unnecessary multiplication of the schools themselves necessitates a further distribution of the Grammar School Fund, thereby diminishing the amount for the others; and it happens, not unfrequently, that the number of advanced scholars are so few, that the school is in all respects but a common school" (*Report for* 1860, p. 198).

† "Unqualified masters are sometimes engaged by the trustees at so low a salary as $500 a year on the speculation of their passing the necessary examination afterwards, an act illegal in itself, and placing the Provincial Board of Examiners in a false position in reference to such gentlemen" (*Mr. Inspector Cockburn, Report for* 1860, p. 201). (In the Report for 1863, I count 11 masters' salaries below $400 a year

allowed.* The classical culture they impart is the merest minimum.† The teacher is too dependent upon the trustees,‡ and these again are powerless to act in many directions in which their action, if liberal and energetic, would be beneficial to the school.§ Indeed, I found but one opinion prevailing in Canada among persons conversant with the subject, and that was that the whole system as it relates to grammar schools requires reconstruction; and the new regulations, though a move in the right direction, do not move nearly far enough, and in fact leave the system untouched in its most capital deficiencies.‖

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* "The pernicious custom is becoming pretty universal among the grammar schools, of not subjecting each pupil to the wholesome general literary culture prescribed by law, but of allowing each pupil to choose to a great extent his own branches of study, and thus to develop only one side of his nature. This custom has been encouraged by the fact that certain of the scholarships at matriculation in our universities are granted for special proficiency in particular branches of study, and are not awarded solely for general proficiency in all the subjects taught at the grammar schools, and demanded for matriculation" (*Mr. Cockburn's Report for* 1860, p. 201).

† "Certain books in English, Latin, or Greek are read, but these languages are not taught" (*Ibid*). In 1863, out of 5352 scholars, only 2,701 were learning Latin; only 711 were learning Greek. Of the 711, only 353 were advanced as high as Xenophon's Anabasis; only 120 were reading Homer. Of the 2,701 in Latin, only 486 read Virgil; only 38 Cicero.

‡ "The fact of the teacher being so dependent upon the trustees often compels him to humor the whims of the parent, by allowing him to dictate the branches of study in which he wishes his son to be instructed" (*Mr. Cockburn's Report for* 1860, p. 201). Dr. Ormiston also told me he wished to see some more efficient protection secured to the teacher against the caprice of trustees.

§ We have already seen that the power to levy an assessment resides, not in the trustees, but in the municipal council. Dr. Ormiston thinks that an advantageous alteration might be made in the constitution of the schools and "That inasmuch as very few of the county councils take much interest in the "grammar schools, regarding them as local rather than general privileges, it "might tend to increase the efficiency and usefulness of the schools, if they "were placed under the jurisdiction of the municipalities where they are situated, "or such sections of counties as are desirous of supporting such schools," and he recommends "that grammar school trustees should be elected by the "municipalities or districts supporting the schools, and be invested with "powers for the support of the school similar to those now entrusted to common "school trustees" (*Report for* 1860, p. 200).

‖ These deficiencies are carefully summed up by Mr. Inspector Ambery:—

"With the exception of two or three really good schools, our grammar schools in the extreme east are in a very low state. Several of them I can only designate as infant schools. Nor do I see any thing from the localities in which they are placed, or the present state of the grammar school law, which gives me any hope of amelioration. Advancing civilization and the material growth of the country in time may act upon them, but immediate remedies, and those of a stringent nature, are imperatively needed. A few of the hindrances to their improvement, which apply generally to all the schools, I venture to point out—

1. The present means of obtaining funds. That the management of the schools should be left to a body of trustees who in this respect are powerless, and the granting of money for schools in which they have no local interest, should be in the hands of the county council, produces such a result as might be expected. It paralyzes the whole system. Whenever an improvement is wanted, sometimes absolutely necessary for the health of the pupils, the same answer is invariably given to your inspector—"Application has been made for the neces-"sary funds, but rejected." Some improvement in the law is absolutely required by which the trustees of the several schools might within certain

In 1855 a clause was introduced into the Act for the Improvement of the Grammar and Common Schools of the Upper

The model grammar school.

limits be allowed to raise a loan, or some system of greater centralization is required, which, by granting from the county funds scholarships to enable deserving pupils to live at the central schools, would give a more lively interest in them to the whole county. The disadvantages of the present system are the starving of the schools, or the forcing them into union with the common schools for which money is cheerfully raised—a union which is fraught with the greatest damage to the former, and very little advantage to the latter. Trustees, however enthusiastic in the endeavours to promote higher education, finding themselves helpless naturally fall off and give up such endeavours in despair.

2. The want of a class of specially trained grammar school masters, who have taken this as the *permanent* profession of life, is a great drawback to the efficiency of our schools. The supposed inferior social status of the grammar schoolmaster, and the larger rewards held out to superior mental activity in the other professions, turn aside most of those who are best qualified for the scholastic office. Of the 22 schools mentioned in my Report, six were in the hands of persons who avowedly were making them the stepping-stones to the attainment of other professions as law, medicine, or the church. Several were evidently conducted by persons who had taken them after having failed in other walks of life. Comparatively few were held by those who were fitted for their office by previous training, or were throwing themselves entirely into their work as the main business of their lives.

3. The localities of some of these schools were such as would naturally and necessarily prevent their attaining to even a respectable standard. Such schools would meet with no sympathy or aid from the county councils, and would themselves be too poor to raise sufficient funds for their efficient working. Concentration might be sparingly applied to such schools as these—sparingly, for the aim, at all events, is a noble one, to raise at their own doors a seat of liberal education.

4. The want of appreciation of higher education.—Liberal education has one great obstacle not felt with regard to primary. When people are without it—when it does not exist among them—they do not feel the need of it. Useful acquirements and a vigorous discipline limit the horizon of the best popular idea of education. Enlargement of mind, superior mental cultivation, are late in being conceived as a definite object. Cleverness, skill, fluency, and memory are understood, and have their price in the market. The first aim is naturally after excellencies of the material, mechanical, so-called practical sort. If our grammar schools, however, are to educate our professional men, we shall soon see, if these schools are placed on a proper footing, how much breadth of cultivation tells in every profession—how much it enlarges the views, improves the judgment, and obtains that consideration and influence which make it appreciated. . . . It is to our universities that the country has a right to look for setting this matter right.

5. The university system of the province, in connexion with the grammar school masterships.—No obstacle appears more fatal to the endeavour to raise the standard of our schools than the diversities of methods, aims, qualifications, and attainments arising from our masters having been educated at so many of our provincial universities. However, the conflicting claims of the several universities may be adjusted, however paramount may be the reasons for their existence, no one can for a moment doubt the increased benefits that would be conferred upon education, from the universities to the primary school, by our having one standard for degrees and one for matriculation. The relation of universities to the schools, in this respect, is one of action and reaction. If the university standard is lowered to meet that of the ordinary schools, this at once deprives the higher schools of their aim and grand incentive to exertion. This especially applies in a country where the books required for matriculation are not taken as a specimen of a large body of reading at school, but as the whole of such reading before entering the university. Again, according to the present system of taking degrees, and thus qualifying for grammar school

Province, which empowered the Council of Public Instruction to expend "a sum not exceeding 1000*l.* per annum for the establish-
" ment and maintenance of a model grammar school," intended
" to exemplify the best methods of teaching the branches required
" by law to be taught in the grammar schools, especially classics
" and mathematics, as a model for the grammar schools of the
" country." It was also hoped that it would be found useful as a normal classical school for the special training of grammar school teachers. The number of pupils was limited to 100; and as the objects of the institution were not local, but provincial, the pupils to be admitted were apportioned, three to each county, and two to each city of Upper Canada. If any county or city did not avail itself of the privilege, then other duly qualified applicants were to be admitted, in the order of their application. The qualifications for admission were to be the same as those required for admission into the county grammar schools; but a preference was to be given to those who, in addition to those requirements, could pass an examination in the Latin declensions and four regular conjugations. The curriculum was to extend over five years, and was to embrace "an extended course of instruction in
" Latin, Greek, mathematics, French, German, English grammar,
" literature and composition, history and geography, both ancient
" and modern, logic, rhetoric, and mental science, natural history
" and physical science, evidences of revealed religion, the usual
" commercial branches, drawing, music, gymnastic, fencing, and
" drill exercises; the more advanced students were also to have
" the opportunity of attending lectures in the various departments
" of literature, science, and art." Students might be admitted to any class which, upon examination, they showed themselves qualified to join.

It was not intended to be a free school. The year being divided into four terms, the fees were fixed, for one pupil, at $10 per term; for two brothers, $8 each; for three or more brothers, $6 each per term; payable in advance. Pupils from a distance were to be allowed to board in houses sanctioned by the council at prices agreed upon by their parents and the keepers of the houses; or in a private family at the request of their parents.

To give more meaning to its title of the "Model School," its vacations were so fixed as to allow an opportunity to grammar school masters of visiting it, to see the methods pursued, during their own vacations.

The building assigned to the school contained large and well-ventilated class-rooms, a library, a laboratory, and a hall for assembling the whole school. Attached was a playground of nearly two acres, with gymnastic apparatus, and covered sheds for exercise in wet weather.

Its brief career. The school was opened at Toronto under a full and competent staff of teachers—the rector being the present head of Upper

masterships, we have no safeguard or check to prevent a graduate holding one of these, though entirely ignorant of one of the two main branches of learning, which it is his special duty to teach (*Report for* 1860, pp. 202–3.)

Canada College—in August 1858. But its existence was short. Between Upper Canada College, on the one hand, and the Toronto grammar school on the other, notwithstanding its provincial character, there appears to have been no standing-ground for the model school. It died in 1861, and has left behind it no memory but that of being an honest but unsuccessful—unsuccessful, perhaps, because a too ambitious—effort to improve the condition of the Upper Canada grammar schools.*

Upper Canada College.

At present, the only institution in Upper Canada which seems capable of really giving a higher education and of occupying that position in relation to the universities which is occupied by the public schools of England, is the institution originally called the "Royal Grammar School," but whose title was subsequently changed to that which it now bears—Upper Canada College. It is situated at Toronto, and was established in the year 1829 by the Legislature, on the recommendation of the then Lieutenant-Governor of the province, Sir John Colborne (afterwards Lord Seaton), and endowed with a grant of 66,000 acres of land.† It is placed by its constitution under the control of the Senate of the University of Toronto, but the Principal and other masters are appointed by the Governor. It educates some 220 or 230 boys,—40 to 50 of whom are boarders, paying at the rate of $180 (about 35 guineas a year), and the rest day-boys, whose annual fee for tuition is $40, or 8*l.*

There is an annual public examination in July at which exhibitions, ranging in value from $120 to $40 per annum, are offered for competition among the various grammar schools of the province. The school is said to have educated "more than 2,500 of "the youth of the province" since its institution, and to number among its pupils "the greater portion of the medal-men, scholars, "and honor-men of the universities."‡

The school occupies a pleasant site in the heart of the city of Toronto, is furnished with suitable buildings, and is in the hands of an efficient Principal and body of masters.§

I was informed by Professor Ambery, of Trinity College, who examined the school in 1864, that the instruction given both in classics and mathematics, though not ranging high, is fairly sound. The great defect here, as elsewhere on the other side of the

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* See *Chief Superintendent's Report for* 1857, pp. 335–342.

† I imagine that the annual income accruing from this endowment does not exceed $5,000, or about 1,000*l.* a year.

‡ *Hodgins' Sketch of the State of Progress of Public Instruction in Upper Canada*, p. 7. The great expense of the collegiate institutions of the province, and particularly of Upper Canada College, from which it was alleged "the "province in general derived so little advantage that it might be dispensed "with," was one of the "grievances" of 1834. I do not think that it was considered as a grievance in 1865.

§ The staff consists of a Principal; two classical masters; two mathematical; four English and Assistant masters; one French and German teacher; a drawing master; and an instructor in drill, fencing, and gymnastics.

Atlantic, is, that in the study of the classics, editions after the type of Professor Anthon's are preferred to the slower, but surer method which trusts rather to the use of the grammar and dictionary. Mathematics are carried as far as trigonometry, and both French and German, as well as chemistry and drawing, are taught.

There are six forms, supposed to correspond to a curriculum of six years. In the fourth form the school bifurcates into two divisions, the one pursuing a classical and mathematical course with a view to the university, the other turning aside into commercial branches.

The hours of instruction are from 9.0 a.m. to 12.30, and again from 1.30 to 3.0 p.m. The average length of lessons is three-quarters of an hour. Each teacher has his own room, and gives instruction in his own subjects.

Other institutions.

Partly in consequence of the deficiency of good grammar schools, and partly, perhaps, from religious motives, other institutions, offering a liberal education, are raising their heads in different parts of the province. The Bishop of Huron has a large one for 250 pupils at London, the Bishop of Ontario another for 200 pupils on the Bay of Quinté; a smaller school is being established in connexion with Trinity College, Toronto, and the Wesleyans have a large female seminary at Hamilton. In all, there are stated to be in the Upper Province 340 academies and private schools, employing 497 teachers, educating 6653 pupils, receiving from fees an annual income of $58,000. I had no opportunity of ascertaining the quality of the instruction given in these institutions; but it has already been observed that in some places persons were found to prefer them, though at a distance, to the grammar school which was at their doors; and it will be noticed that they have enrolled upon their registers upwards of 1,000 more pupils than are enrolled on the registers of the grammar schools, though the average attendance at each is scarcely 20.

There are a few more points that deserve notice in connexion with these grammar schools before we leave this part of our subject.

Union schools.

I have spoken of the frequent union of a grammar school with a common school, and of the mischievous consequences in general of such amalgamation. It appears that the number of such united schools in 1863 was 56, considerably more than half the whole number of grammar schools, and an increase upon 1862 of four.

Salaries.

The average annual salary of the head master of a grammar school in 1863 was $675, about 135*l.* a year; of an assistant-master, $355. Only 25 schools employed an assistant-master.

Use of Bible and prayer.

Eighty-one of the schools are opened and closed with prayer; in 63 the Bible is used. They are almost universally kept open throughout the year.

Matriculations.

Of the 5,352 pupils attending in the year 1863, only 70 matriculated at any university, of whom 38 obtained either scholarships or honours at matriculation. Exactly half of the whole number matriculated at the University of Toronto.

Day scholars and boarders.

Of their 5,352 pupils, 4,013 are resident in the town or village where the grammar schoool is situated, and may therefore be considered as day-boys; the remainder, 1,339, must board with the master or elsewhere. The proportion of boarders to day scholars, therefore, is about as one to three.

Exhibitions.

At many of the grammar schools, scholarships or exhibitions are maintained, sometimes by the municipality, sometimes by the trustees, sometimes by the master, giving a free education, (and worth, therefore, from $10 to $20 a year), either to meritorious competitors from the common schools, or to indigent boys. In 1863 there were 215 such free admissions, a remarkable increase of 96 as compared with the number in 1862.*

Income and expenditure.

The income of these schools for the year 1863 amounted to $89,159 of which $44,274 arose from the Legislative Grant, $15,636 from municipal assessment, $20,462 from fees, $8,786 from balances of the preceding year. The expenditure in the same period was $85,910, of which $76,121 was spent on teachers' salaries. This expenditure is at the average rate of about $900 per school, and of $16 per scholar enrolled.

Meteorological observations.

A peculiar, and, if properly worked, a valuable feature of the grammar school law is that clause in the Act which makes each senior county grammar school a meteorological station, and requires the master of such school, as part of his duty, to make the requisite observations for keeping, and to keep, a meteorological journal according to a form prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction, a monthly report of which is to be regularly transmitted to the Chief Superintendent For this purpose each senior county grammar school is required to provide itself with a barometer, a thermometer, a Daniel's hygrometer, or other instrument for showing the dew-point, a rain-gauge and measure, and a wind-vane. These instruments, together with some useful text-books and directions for their use, are provided by the Department of Education at a cost of $140, one half of which is borne by the Department, and the other half by the county to which the intruments are sent. When desirable, an officer is sent from the Department with the instruments, to ensure safety in their carriage, and to assist in fitting them up at their station.†

Exhibitions at Toronto and Ottawa.

* The city council of Toronto give annually seven such scholarships, entitling to free education at the grammar school for two years, to the seven best candidates, upon examination, from the common schools. At Ottawa the board of grammar school trustees established two of a similar kind. There are also, in this city, four exhibitions endowed out of the General School Fund, for the sons of widows in indigent circumstances, which the head master told me had been found to be of great benefit in several instances.

† See *Report for* 1857, pp. 356–9.

It appears from the Report of 1863, that out of the 31 counties in which senior grammar schools existed, only 20 had, up to that date, contributed the necessary sum of half-price to purchase instruments, and only nine of these sent in, during that year, the returns prescribed by law. The Chief Superintendent hopes that steps will be taken to enforce the law more strictly, and perhaps to restrict the special annual grant of $400 now made to each senior school, and probably intended to include remuneration for the trouble imposed in taking these observations and recording them, to those stations only from which returns are received.*

Appending the new regulations and revised programme for directing the course of study in grammar schools, to which reference has been occasionally made, I pass on to notice the few remaining points in the Upper Canada system of education which deserve attention.

Revised Programme of Studies and General Rules and Regulations for the Government of Grammar Schools in Upper Canada.

Prescribed under the authority of the Consolidated Grammar School Act, 22 Vict. cap. 63.

Prefatory Explanation.

The 12th section of the Upper Canada Consolidated Grammar School Act requires that, "In each county grammar school provision shall be made for "giving, by a teacher or teachers of competent ability and good morals, instruc- "tions in all the higher branches of a practical English and commercial "education, including the elements of natural philosophy and mechanics, and "also in the Greek and Latin languages, and mathematics, so far as to prepare "students for University College, or for any college affiliated to the University "of Toronto,—according to a programme of studies, and general rules and "regulations, to be prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction for Upper "Canada, and approved by the Governor-General in Council. And no "Grammar school shall be entitled to receive any part of the Grammar School "Fund, which is not conducted according to such programme, rules, and "regulations." In the seventh clause of the 25th section of the Act (after providing for the union of the grammar and one or more common schools in any municipality) it is provided that "no such union shall take place without "ample provision being made for given instruction to the pupils in the "elementary English branches, by duly qualified English teachers."

2. From these provisions of the law it is clearly the object and function of grammar schools, not to teach the elementary branches of English, but to teach the higher branches alone, and especially to teach the subjects necessary for matriculation into the University. With a view to the promotion of these objects, and for the greater efficiency of the grammar schools, the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada, after mature deliberation, have adoptrd the following regulations, which, according to the 12th section, and the eighth clause of the 25th section of the Consolidated Grammar School Act, 22 Victoria, chapter 63, are binding upon all boards of trustees and officers of grammar schools throughout Upper Canada.

Section I.—Basis and Conditions of Apportionment of the Grammar School Fund.

1. As far as the law will permit, the apportionment of the Grammar School Fund, payable half-yearly to the grammar schools, shall (as in the case of

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* *Report* for 1863, table H., p. 50.

common schools) be made according to the average attendance at each grammar school of pupils learning the Greek or Latin language; and such attendance shall be certified by the head master and trustees, and verified by the Inspector of Grammar Schools.

2. After the 1st day of January 1866, no Grammar School shall be entitled to receive anything from the Grammar School Fund, unless suitable accommodation shall be provided for it, and unless it shall have a daily average attendance (times of epidemic excepted) of at least 10 pupils learning Greek or Latin; nor shall any other than pupils learning the Greek or Latin language be admitted or continued in any grammar school.

Section II.—Qualifications for the Admission of Pupils into the Grammar Schools.

1. The examinations and admissions of pupils by the head master of any grammar school shall be regarded as preliminary and provisional until the visit of the inspector, who shall finally examine and admit all pupils to the grammar schools.

2. The regular periods for the admission of pupils commencing classical studies shall be immediately after the Christmas and after the summer vacations, but the admission of those pupils who have already commenced the study of the Latin language, may take place at the commencement of each term. The preliminary examinations for the admission of pupils shall be conducted by the head master; as also examinations for such scholarships, exhibitions and prizes, as may have been instituted by municipal councils as authorized by law, or by other corporate bodies, or by private individuals. But the board of trustees may, if they shall think proper, associate other persons with the head master in the examinations for such scholarships, exhibitions, or prizes.

3. Pupils in order to be admitted to the grammar school must be able, 1. To read intelligibly a passage from any common reading book. 2. To spell correctly the words of an ordinary sentence. 3. To write a fair hand. 4. To work questions in the four simple rules of arithmetic. 5. Must know the rudiments of English grammar, so as to be able to parse any easy sentence.

Section III.—Programme of Studies in the Grammar Schools of Upper Canada.

Class.	I. Latin.	II. Greek.	III. French.	IV. English.	V. Arithmetic and Mathematics.	VI. Geography. and History.	VII. Physical Science.	VIII. Miscellaneous.
First, or Lowest.	Latin Grammar commenced. Arnold's 1st Latin Book.	None.	None.	Elements of English Grammar. Reading and Spelling.	Arithmetic. Revise the four simple rules. Reduction and Decimal Currency. Begin Simple Proportion.	Outlines of Geography.	None.	Writing. Drawing. Vocal Music.
Second.	Latin Grammar continued. Arnold's 2d Latin Book. Cæsar commenced.	Greek Grammar commenced. Harkness' Arnold.	None.		Arithmetic. Revise previous work. Simple Proportion. Vulgar and Decimal Fractions. *Algebra. First four rules.	English History. Modern and Ancient Geography	None.	Writing. Drawing. Vocal Music.
Third.	Cæsar continued. Virgil. Æneid, B. II. commenced. Latin Prose Composition. Prosody commenced.	Greek Grammar continued. Harkness continued Lucian. Charon.	Grammar and Exercises (De Fivas').	Grammar. Elements of Composition.	Arithmetic continued. Algebra. Fractions. Greatest Common Measure & Least Common Multiple. Simple Equations. †Euclid, B. I.	English History continued. Ancient History. Modern and Ancient Geography	Elements of Natural History.	Drawing. Vocal Music.
Fourth.	Virgil. Æneid, B. II. completed. Livy. B. II., ch. 1 to 15 inclusive. Latin Prose Composition. Prosody continued.	Lucian. Life. Xenophon. Anabasis, B. I., ch. 7, 8. Homer. Iliad, B. I.	Grammar and Exercises contin'd. Voltaire. Charles XII., B. I., II., III.	Grammar. Composition. Christian Morals and Elements of Civil Government.	*Algebra. Involution and Evolution. Theory of Indices and Surds; Equations, Simple, Quadratic, and Indeterminate. †Euclid, B. I., II.	English History continued. History of Canada. Ancient Geography and History.	Elements of Natural Philosophy and Geology.	Drawing. Book-keeping Vocal Music.
Fifth.	Cicero (for the Manilian law). Ovid. Heroides, I. and XIII. Horace. Odes, B. I. Composition in Prose and Verse.	Xenophon. Anabasis, B. I., ch. 9. 10. Homer. Odyssey, B. IX. Previous subjects reviewed.	Corneille. Horace, Act IV. Review of previous subjects.		*Algebra. Progression and Proportion, with revisal of previous work. †Euclid, B. III. VI.	Revise previous subjects.	Elements of Physiology & Chemistry.	Drawing. Vocal Music.

Explanatory Memoranda to the foregoing Programme.

1. The above Programme is to be regarded as the model upon which each school is to be organized, as far as practicable, and no departure from it can be allowed, unless sanctioned by the Council of Public Instruction, on the recommendation of the Inspector.
2. Pupils shall be arranged in classes corresponding to their respective degrees of proficiency. There may be two or more divisions in each class; and each pupil shall be advanced from one class or division to another, according to attainments in scholarship, without reference to time.
3. The subjects of the seventh and eighth columns are optional, except writing and book-keeping.

* Todhunter's or Sangster's.

† Potts' or Todhunter's.

Two special merits which the Canadian system claims for itself, as compared with any other established on the North American continent, are the provision which it makes for supplying schools with maps, apparatus, prize and library books, and municipalities with libraries; and secondly, its provision for pensioning superannuated or worn-out teachers.* Two special features.

There appears to have been almost a mania in the minds of the framers of the Upper Canada system of education for the formation of libraries. They conceived the idea of a county common school library; a public library in every township; a library in every school section; a county teachers' association library; a county jail library, &c.† It is enjoined as a duty upon almost every official body connected with the school system—upon city, town, and county municipal councils; upon city, town and village boards of school trustees; upon town councils, and trustees of rural school sections; upon county boards of public instruction, school visitors, and local Superintendents, to do all that in them respectively lies to establish and maintain public libraries, and foster a taste for general reading. A saying of Lord Elgin's at the opening of the Provincial Exhibition in 1854, to the effect that "Township and county libraries were becoming the crown and "glory of the institutions of the province," is quoted again and again as the opinion pronounced by a very competent judge of their social value.‡ The total number of free school and other public libraries in 1863, is reported as 2,948—an increase of 92 in the year—containing 691,803 volumes.§ Libraries, apparatus, prizes, &c., how provided.

The system under which these books are provided cannot be better described than in the language of the Chief Superintendent. "A carefully classified catalogue of about 4,000 works which, "after examination, have been approved by the Council of Public "Instruction, is sent to the trustees of each school section and "the council of each municipality. From this catalogue, the "municipal or school authorities, desirous of establishing or "improving a library, select such books as they think proper, and "receive from the Department the books desired, with an apportionment of 100 per cent. upon whatever sum or sums they "provide for the purchase of such books."‖

† *Hodgins' Sketch*, p. 3.
‡ See *Trustees' Manual*, pp. 41, 53, 63 and note.
§ *Report* for 1857, p. 337; *Report on separate schools*, p. 37.
‡ *Report* for 1863, p. 12.
‖ *Report for* 1863, p. 12. The Council of Public Instruction in framing the catalogue were guided by the following considerations:—

(*a.*) No work of a licentious, vicious, or immoral tendency, and no works hostile to the Christian religion, should be admitted into the libraries.

(*b.*) Nor was it deemed compatible with the objects of the public school libraries to introduce into them controversial works on theology, or works of denominational controversy, although it would not be desirable to exclude all historical and other works in which such topics are referred to and discussed; and it is desirable to include a selection of suitable works on the evidences of natural and revealed religion.

Maps, apparatus and prize books (not text books) are provided by the Department in the same way and on the same terms, the only limitation being that the sum remitted to the Department by the locality must not be less than five dollars for each purchase.

The maps, globes, and other articles of school apparatus issued by the department are nearly all manufactured in Canada, after the most approved patterns, and exhibiting the latest discoveries; and credit is taken to the Department for having thus stimulated local mechanical and artistical skill and enterprise, at the same time that a great boon has been bestowed upon the schools. It is also noticed, as worthy of remark, that this branch of the educational Department is self-supporting, the whole expense being reckoned in the cost of the articles and books procured; so that the only cost to the provincial revenue is the public apportionment which is granted to meet an equal sum provided by the school section or municipality.*

Method borrowed from England.

It is admitted that this method of supplying schools with libraries, maps and apparatus, is borrowed from the system once employed in our own Education Office, but subsequently, on very good grounds, as it seems to me, abandoned.† It has caused a good deal of agitation in Canada, particularly in the bookselling and publishing trade, and a petition signed by 48 persons engaged in those trades was presented to the Legislature about eight years ago, stating that "their lawful trade was seriously injured by the "interference of the Chief Superintendent of Education with "many of its principal branches," and praying that "an inquiry "might be made into the scheme and operations of the said "Educational Depository in all its branches."

Thus challenged, the Chief Superintendent defended both himself and the system in a vigorous pamphlet, in which he disposed with more or less success of the various charges that had been brought against both;‡ but though the system still continues and I believe

(*c.*) In regard to books on ecclesiastical history, the Council agrees in a selection of the most approved works on each side.

(*d.*) With these exceptions and within these limitations, it is the opinion of the Council that as wide a selection as possible should be made of useful and entertaining books of permanent value adapted to popular reading in the various departments of human knowledge, leaving each municipality to consult its own taste and exercise its own discretion in selecting books.—(*Report for* 1857, 372.)

* *Report for* 1863, p. 13. I must do the Canadian manufacturers the justice to say that the specimens of their skill and workmanship which I saw in the Depository of the Department were in the highest degree creditable to them—quite equal, it seemed to me, to anything of the kind that we produce in England.

† "There is, however, one feature of the English system which I have "thought very admirable, and which I have incorporated with Upper Canada, "namely, that of supplying the schools with maps, apparatus, and libraries."—(*Report for* 1857, p. 32.) There are some other features, as I shall mention further on, which might have been borrowed with advantage. But Dr. Ryerson hardly does our English system justice. I don't think he is aware of the difficulties through which it has had to fight its way, nor does he seem to see how very closely, in theory, it resembles his own.

‡ See *Report on Measures adopted to Supply School Sections, &c., with School Text Books, Apparatus, and Libraries.* 1858.

works beneficially, I must say, from complaints that met my ears from many quarters at Toronto, that he has not entirely succeeded in putting down opposition or allaying murmurs.

The sum apportioned by the Education Department in 1863 for the supply of library books was $1,888; and for prize books, maps, and apparatus, $7,945; the amount in each case being met by an equal sum raised from local sources.

Compared with Ohio and New York.

The Canadian system on this point is compared by Dr. Ryerson with the systems adopted in the neighbouring states of Ohio and New York, and pronounced to combine many superior advantages, the chief one being the purely voluntary character of its operation.* There is no doubt that the effects of the library system in the states of Ohio and New York, however beneficial they may have been at its first establishment, are rapidly declining, and the school commissioners report that in almost every district the public libraries are falling into disuse and neglect. "Now it is a system of school libraries, thus declining as rapidly of late years as it "grew in former years, that we are called upon," says Dr. Ryerson, "by certain parties to substitute for our present Canadian system of public libraries."†

Not generally successful.

There is no doubt, judging from the evidence furnished by the reports, that the library systems of Ohio and New York have proved a failure; and it can hardly be maintained, taking the same evidence as our guide, that the library system of Canada has been a success. Here and there, in perusing the reports of the local superintendents, one finds notice taken of a library that is exercising a beneficial and refining influence upon a neighbourhood; but this case is the exception, not the rule; and the general account is either that the people are too indifferent or too poor to establish a library, or too ignorant to use it.‡

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* *Ibid.* p. 40–41.

† *Ibid.* p. 42.

‡ Without again wading through all the 152 reports, as we did on the subject of religious instruction, I will extract every notice of a library to be found in the first 50, and I think the impression left upon the mind will be what I have recorded in the text. I again adopt the mode of quoting by figures, without mentioning names:—

1. "There are no libraries established in this township yet, except at Martintown. I have said and done all I could to impress on the minds of trustees and constituents the benefits that would be derived from the establishment of libraries, but all to no purpose."

6. "I have still to reiterate the old story in regard to libraries. Public moneys are used in making and repairing roads in preference to making and repairing minds. Such is the will of the people, and they have it all their own way."

7. "The township is too poor to attempt the establishment of school libraries, nor do I think it would be advisable to do so until a greater degree of efficiency is attained throughout the schools."

8. "As to public school libraries, having none in this township, I have nothing to report."

10. "There are only three school section libraries in the township, and there does not seem to be much interest taken in them by the inhabitants. I can say little about their influence upon the neighbourhood."

11. "I am sorry to say that none of the sections has a library. A small one was procured a few years ago for No. 2, but the person who had charge of the

Causes of the failure.

I do not attribute the failure in any of the cases to the system nor to the fact that in one case the impost is voluntary, in the

books kept no account of them, and since his death they have been altogether lost sight of."

12. "Neither trustees, parents, nor teachers appear to take the deep interest which they ought to take in the libraries of the townships. Only five sections have books in circulation."

13. "The library is kept according to the regulations, and the books read. So far as I could ascertain, it is exerting a good influence upon those who use it."

15. "There is only one common school library in this township. The books were procured from the department, and are read with advantage both by old and young."

17. "There are only three libraries, and these are not extensively used."

18. "I can only boast of having to report one library in this township, and its influence is beneficially felt."

19. "There is another department in which more interest should be taken—the establishment of common school libraries. It is to be lamented that trustee corporations are so indifferent to this source of improvement."

21. "I am sorry to say that the libraries are small and not well kept, and for the most part the books are not much read."

22. "There is one school library; the books being covered and labelled, and general regulations complied with."

23. "The library books are evidently read by comparatively few of the inhabitants of this township. In order to subserve intended purposes, it will be necessary to obtain additional books for the libraries at present in existence, and to procure libraries for those sections where they do not exist."

24. "The influence of the libraries is slow to appear, but no doubt they are doing good."

27. "As to public school libraries, we have none in this township."

30. "As yet we have no library, but the township council, I believe, intends to establish one. I have brought it before their notice."

34. "The township library is but too well kept, being closely locked up in the town hall, and little distributed to any."

35. "We have no school libraries to report, and no addition to our stock of maps. In fact, our school authorities seem not to appreciate these necessary appendages to our schools as they should."

39. "The library books are perused by a considerable number of persons, who take an interest in reading; but a taste for general reading does not prevail to a desirable extent in some localities here."

43. "We have no libraries, except one small Sunday-school library."

45. "Our libraries remain as they were, very few taking any interest in them. It is to be regretted there is such little taste for healthy literature."

46. "Our libraries are of very little use, because they find but very few readers. In course of time, I really believe that the new generation will have more taste for reading; if not, I do not see the utility of libraries."

47. "School section libraries do exert a favourable influence where they are kept up and new books procured occasionally. If a sum were devoted to that purpose every year, to keep up the interest by affording information of a new and edifying nature, they would be still more useful. In most cases the desire for information of a literary nature has to be created. It is to be regretted that school libraries are not established in every section."

48. "We have one library which, as far as I can learn, is not used as much as might be expected."

49. "I find the school libraries all in as good condition as fair usage will permit, and on inquiry find that the strict letter of the law is, as far as possible, observed."

50. "The libraries are so small and the readers so few in number, that they have little or no influence. The largest library contains only 180 volumes, and some as low as 50. Were they increased to 400 or 500 volumes, each containing attractive and instructive reading, I have no doubt that in a year or two a marked difference would be observable in the intelligence of the people."

In the omitted numbers no notice is taken by the Superintendents of the matter.

other levied by law. The result appears to be much the same under both régimes, and is to be attributed to certain causes operating in human nature, not to any defects inherent in a system. Taking people as they are, with the average amount of intelligence and the average amount of literary interest, it is almost impossible, unless under very favourable and exceptional circumstances, to establish in a rural district a successful library. In Massachusetts, township libraries, as far as they have yet been established, are said to be working well;* but they are by no means universal even there, where the definition of man may almost be said to be that he is a "reading animal;" and in New York and Ohio they have confessedly broken down. There are said to be in Upper Canada about 3,000 public libraries containing about 700,000 volumes. I do not know whether the University libraries are included in this calculation; but even supposing that they are not, these figures only allow an average of less than 240 volumes to each, and sometimes (as we have seen) the number of volumes actually in a library is not much more than a fifth of this amount. Of these again only a limited number would suit the taste of each individual; these would be soon perused, and my own experience is that it is very difficult to persuade people to read a library book through a second time, however interesting its contents and however little they may remember them. That there should be a general desire for mental culture, or that the attractions of public libraries should be very strong, while elementary education continues to do so little to quicken literary tastes, is a thing not reasonably to be expected.

Superannuated teachers' fund.

The Canadian Legislature appropriates $4,000 per annum in aid of superannuated or worn-out common school teachers. The regulations under which it is distributed are prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction, the law itself requiring three preliminary conditions, viz., that "no annual allowance to any superannuated or worn-out teacher shall exceed the rate of six dollars for each year that such teacher has taught a common school in Upper Canada; and no teacher shall be entitled to share in the said fund unless he has contributed to such fund the sum of four

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* See *Report of the Agent, in Massachusetts 28th Report*, pp. 45-7. He mentions one interesting result of these libraries, that they "have helped to increase the number of organized 'reading circles' of young people. Selections in prose or poetry, often a play of Shakespeare, the several parts having been previously assigned, are made the subject of careful private study and drill. Well would it be if this sort of evening school were maintained in every village. They would cultivate the noble art of reading. Too often in our schools the exercise is mechanical and monotonous. In the reading clubs fresh and strong incentives rouse the mind, and secure the best style each can command. The study of a part or selection till one becomes possessed of its thought and spirit, and the needful practice in rendering it, cannot fail to secure rapid improvement. My own observations, confirmed by competent testimony from various parts of the State, sanction a high estimate of the educational value of these reading circles" (*Ibid.*) Without being a substitute for, they appear to be an advance upon, our "penny readings," as a means of mutual culture.

" dollars or more per annum for the period of his teaching school, " or of his receiving aid from such fund; nor unless he furnishes " satisfactory proof of inability, from age or loss of health in " teaching, to pursue that profession any longer."*

The amount of the fund only allows of what the Chief Superintendent calls a " pittance " to each pensioner. Four of the pensions range between $90 and $100 a year; four more are between $60 and $75; seven are between $40 and $60; 41 are between $20 and $40; and the remaining 110 are below $20. The net amount of the 166 pensions paid in 1863 was $3,245, giving an average of not quite $20 a piece. The average age of each pensioner in 1863 was 66½ years; and his average length of service, 21 years. By a liberal construction of the law, though no time is allowed to any applicant except that which has been employed in teaching a common school in Upper Canada, yet his having kept school for many years in England, Ireland, Scotland, or the other British North American provinces is allowed to admit him to the category of " worn-out common school teachers," even though he may only have taught for a few years in Canada. The whole plan does credit both to the wisdom and the liberality of its framers. That a country, comparatively so poor as Canada should be able and willing to maintain a system of equitable relief to superannuated or disabled teachers which we, with all our wealth, attempted, but felt ourselves obliged to abandon, is, to my mind, a fact not a little remarkable.

Such, in all its main features, is the school system of Upper Canada. A system, in the eyes of its administrators, who regard it with justifiable self-complacency, not perfect,* but yet far in

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* *Trustees' School Manual*, p. 106. It appears that *grammar-school* masters, as such, cannot avail themselves of the advantages of this fund; but teachers of English branches in grammar-schools, who are legally qualified common school teachers, may (See *Ibid.* p. 158). A teacher, to be entitled to a pension, must have been disabled or worn out while teaching a common school. If the fund at any time should be insufficient to pay the several claimants the highest sum allowed by law it will be equitably divided among them according to their respective periods of service. If a subscriber to the fund die without deriving any benefit from it, having a wife and children, the amount of his subscriptions will be returned to them. If a teacher did not begin to subscribe when he began to teach he must pay up the subscription of the omitted years in order to derive the full advantage of the fund (*Ibid.* p. 159).

† *Report for* 1863, p. 13.

‡ " Have we not reason to maintain and extend with more earnestness and confidence than ever our Canadian system of public instruction? No one can be more sensible than myself that our school system is far from being perfect; that the details of the law itself are susceptible of amendment in several respects; that in the organization, alterations and settlements of boundaries of school sections, improvements are practicable; that as the standard of the qualifications of teachers has already been raised higher than it was formerly, so it must be raised higher than it is now, as fast as qualified teachers can be found to fill the schools; that much may be done to render the system of inspecting schools more effective, to secure more general and punctual attendance at schools, and to render them instruments of greater good; yet no intelligent and candid man can compare our school system with that of other countries without acknowledging that it has less machinery and is more simple than that

advance, as a system of national education, of anything that we can show at home.* It is indeed very remarkable to me that in a country, occupied in the greater part of its area by a sparse and anything but wealthy population, whose predominant characteristic is as far as possible removed from the spirit of enterprise, an educational system so complete in its theory and so capable of adaptation in practice should have been originally organized, and have been maintained in what, with all allowances, must still be called successful operation for so long a period as 25 years. It shows what can be accomplished by the energy, determination and devotion of a single earnest man. What national education in Great Britain owes to Sir James Kay Shuttleworth, what education in New England owes to Horace Mann, that debt education in Canada owes to Egerton Ryerson. He has been the object of bitter abuse, of not a little misrepresentation; but he has not swerved from his policy or from his fixed ideas. Through evil report and good report he has resolved, and he has found others to support him in the resolution, that free education shall be placed within the reach of every Canadian parent for every Canadian child. I hope I have not been ungenerous in dwelling sometimes upon the deficiencies in this noble work. To point out a defect is sometimes the first step towards repairing it; and if this report should ever cross the ocean and be read by those of whom it speaks, I hope not with too great freedom, they will, perhaps, accept the assurance that, while I desired to appreciate, I was bound, above all, to be true; and that even where I could not wholly praise, I never meant to blame. Honest criticism is not hostility.

Lower Canada.

It may be proper to prefix to a report of education in Lower Canada, as it is, a brief historical sketch of what it has been since the day (in 1608) when Champlain formed the first permanent European settlement of which any records remain on the North

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of any other country or State in Europe or America (?); that it is better adapted than any other to do the very thing most wanted in England and not properly provided for in the neighbouring States—to combine and develop local action and resources in co-operation with governmental counsel and assistance; that its progress during the short period of its existence is without precedent or rival, and that we have every encouragement to persevere in its extension and improvement, until it shall impart to every child in the land that learning of which Cicero so eloquently says:—'It affords nourishment in youth and 'delight in old age. It is an ornament in prosperity, and a solace in adversity. 'It pleases at home, and does not encumber abroad. A constant companion 'by night and by day, it attends us in our pastimes and forsakes us not in our 'labours'" (*Report on Separate Schools*, p. 57).

* "When it is proposed to introduce either of those systems (the British or Irish) into Upper Canada at the expense of our own it becomes my duty to show how much Upper Canada is in advance both of Great Britain and Ireland in regard to a system of national education, and how much more they have to borrow from us than we to borrow from them in solving the great problem of educating a whole people, and of educating them, not as paupers or dependents upon others, but as self-relying citizens and freemen" (*Report for* 1857, p. 46).

American continent, on the spot now occupied by the city of Quebec, and the Franciscan father, Pacifique Duplessis, opened the first Canadian school at Three Rivers in 1616.*

Educational efforts of the Roman Catholic religious orders.

"To the Catholic Church" says Sir Arthur Buller, "Lower "Canada is indebted for all its early scholastic endowments. The "ample estates and active benevolence of the Jesuits of the semi-"naries of Quebec and Montreal, and of various nunneries and "their missions, were devoted to the education of the people." In 1635 was founded "the great and flourishing college" of the Jesuits at Quebec. In 1639 Madame La Lapeltrie established in the same city the convent of the Ursulines. In 1678 Monseigneur de Laval, the first Roman Catholic bishop of Quebec, instituted as a theological training college, the Grand Seminary. The college of St. Sulpice at Montreal was another of the earliest educational institutions of Canada.

These institutions, however, chiefly contemplated superior education; and few elementary schools existed in any part of the country. In 1653 Marguerite Bourgeois, a name still held in reverence in Lower Canada, founded the order of the Congregation of Our Lady, which is said to have, in the city of Montreal alone 4,000 pupils, in its schools: and the Sisters of this Order, together with some Franciscan Brothers, and some old pupils of the Jesuit colleges, who were supported out of the revenues of the Order, established elementary schools in different neighbourhoods, in which benevolent enterprise they were warmly seconded by Monseigneur de Laval. In 1737 the Christian Brothers undertook the task of popular instruction, and for a time with some success; but their schools at length died away, partly from the indifference of the Government and partly from the apathy of the settlers themselves.

Suppression of the Jesuits.

In 1759 came the Conquest, and in 1774 the suppression of the Order of the Jesuits, and the confiscation of their estates, which were subsequently vested in the English Crown, and, notwithstanding frequent appeals of the colony, were not restored to the provincial Parliament for the purposes of education till 1831. They now form the nucleus of the superior education fund, and consist chiefly of seignorial dues, which are very imperfectly collected, and have been allowed to fall into large arrears, which, I was informed, the Government are very slack in looking up. The building of the Jesuits' college at Quebec is still appropriated to governmental purposes, and used as a barrack.

A "barren and dry land."

After the suppression of the Jesuits (to whom must be added the Franciscans too) "there remained for a long time scarcely

* The materials of this sketch are taken entirely from three sources:—(*a*) The Report of Mr. (now Sir) Arthur Buller to Lord Durham in 1839. (*b*) The Sketch of the Progress of Education in Lower Canada, by J. George Hodgins, Deputy Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada, 1864; and (*c*) A Lecture "On some Points in the History and Prospects of Protestant "Education in Lower Canada," delivered by Principal Dawson, of M'Gill College, Montreal, in December 1864. I do not profess to have made any original researches.

" any other schools but the two seminaries of Quebec and " Montreal, the convents of the Ursulines at Quebec and Three " Rivers, and the schools of the Congregation de Nôtre Dame at " Montreal, and at several villages throughout the country." * The first deluge had swept across the land, and left only these remains.

" The first movement on behalf of public education in Lower " Canada, after the conquest, appears to have been made by Lord " Dorchester, governor of Quebec, in 1787."† He appointed a Commission to inquire into the subject, and to report on " the best " mode of remedying the defects," to furnish " an estimate of " the expense" and to suggest " by what means it might be " defrayed." The commissioners seem to have laboured earnestly in their task, and presented their report in 1789. It disclosed a lamentable want of provision for the education of the people, and an equally lamentable ignorance prevailing in the province. " The Roman Catholic bishop of Quebec, in answer to a question " on the subject, stated that on the average there were, perhaps, " 20 or 30 persons in each parish, principally women, who could " read and write."‡ Lord Dorchester's inquiry in 1787.

The commissioners recommended a school system for Canada, fashioned after the New England model, with a triple gradation.

First, a parish or village free school in every district of the province, under the regulation of the magistrates of the district in the Quarter Sessions of the Peace.

Secondly, a free school for each district in the central or county town, corresponding to the Massachusetts high school; and

Thirdly, a collegiate institute for cultivating the liberal arts and sciences usually taught in the European universities, theology excepted;§ the whole scheme to be carried into effect " without " delay," and the cost to be defrayed out of the Jesuits' estates and by grants of land by the Crown.

It is plain that these were advanced ideas; too advanced for the time. The public mind was not ripe for their adoption; both the report and its suggestions were laid aside; and " Canada acquired " representative institutions before it had a system of education." ‖

Things moved slowly onwards. In 1792 a petition, signed principally by the British inhabitants of Quebec, was presented to the first Canadian parliament, praying for the restoration of the Jesuits' estates to educational purposes. No answer seems to have been received to this petition till 1801, when the lieutenant-governor communicated to the assembly His Majesty's instructions in the following terms: Petition of 1792.

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* *Hodgins.*

† *Dawson.*

‡ *Dawson.*

§ They made this exception, they say, " on account of the mixture of the " two communions, whose joint aid is desirable in so far as they agree, and who " ought to be left to find a separate provision for the candidates for the ministry " of their respective churches."

‖ *Dawson,* U.S.

"With great satisfaction I have to inform you that his Majesty from his paternal regard for the welfare and prosperity of his subjects in this colony, has been graciously pleased to give directions for the establishing of a competent number of free schools for the instruction of their children in the first rudiments of useful learning, and in the English tongue, and also as occasion may require, for foundations of a more enlarged and comprehensive nature; and His Majesty has been further pleased to signify his royal intention that a suitable proportion of the lands of the Crown should be set apart, and the revenues thereof applied to such purposes."

The Royal Institution of 1818.

The result was the passing of the Act establishing "The Royal "Institution for the Advancement of Learning," which Mr. Dawson considers to have been "the first great step in the "advancement of education in Lower Canada." The promised grants of land, however, were never given; and the institution itself was not organized till 1818. It was a corporation consisting of 18 trustees, nominated by the Governor, to whom was committed the entire management of all schools and institutions of royal foundation in the province, as well as the administration of all estates and property belonging to such schools. The Governor was authorized to establish one or more free schools in each parish or township, as he might see fit, upon the application of the inhabitants. He was also to appoint and remove the masters, and fix their salaries.* The schools themselves were placed under the control of the Royal Institution, subject to inspection by the clergy of the religion professed by the inhabitants on the spot; and where they might be of different persuasions, the clergy of each church were to have the superintendence of the children of their respective communities. The schools were further to be superintended by visitors appointed by the corporation, who were to report to the trustees every six months, the number and progress of the scholars, the conduct of the teachers, and the general state of the schools.

Causes of its failure.

The Royal Institution, however, appears to have struck no root in the soil, nor to have succeeded in attaching to itself the sympathies of the people. "It has been crippled," says Mr. Dawson, "by a continuous and persistent opposition, supported "only by slender legislative grants; regarded with jealousy by "the French ecclesiastical party; and only coldly supported by "the English population." "The members of the board," adds Mr. Hodgins, "being composed of men with whom the great "majority of the people had no sympathies, and the teachers "being mostly imported from the United Kingdom, and without "any knowledge of the French language, it was a decided failure. "After 20 years of existence it had 37 schools and 1,048 pupils. "It reached as a maximum, 84 schools and 3,765 pupils." The Act of its incorporation still remains, and is even printed among

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* *See Act respecting the Royal Institution for the Advancement of Learning, in the Acts respecting Education and Schools in Lower Canada*, p. 107–9.

the Acts relating to education in Lower Canada, as though it still were operative; but the functions of the trustees themselves have gradually dwindled away, till all that is left for the "Royal "Institution for the Advancement of Learning" to do, is to administer the endowment of M'Gill College at Montreal.

Various attempts were made, but all in vain, in 1819, 1820, 1821 and 1823, by either or both branches of the Legislature to popularize the system of management of public schools. At length, in 1824, a special committee appointed by the House of Assembly prepared an elaborate report on the state of education in the province. State of education in 1824.

"Its revelations," says Mr. Hodgins, "were startling indeed. "It represented that in many parishes not more than five or six "of the inhabitants could write; that, generally, not above "one-fourth of the whole population could read, and that not "above one-tenth of them could write, even imperfectly." Things had fallen back, instead of advancing, since the date of Lord Dorchester's Commission in 1787.

The issue of this inquiry was the passing of what is known as the Fabrique Act, which is still unrepealed as law, and is still operative in connection with an insignificant number of schools. The Royal Institution was supposed to have more or less a Protestant character. The Fabrique Act was passed to meet the wishes of the Roman Catholic clergy, and in the supposed interests of the Roman Catholic church. The Fabriques are corporate bodies established in each parish by the old French law consisting of the curate and church-wardens (*marguilliers*). The Fabrique was authorized to acquire property, real or personal, not however to exceed $200 in annual income for each school, and to reserve an acre of land as a site (*emplacement*) for the erection and maintenance of elementary schools; and till it had acquired such property, it might spend not more than one-fourth of its general income on this object. One school might be established in each parish; when the number of resident families amounted to 200, a second school might be founded; and so on, in the proportion of one school for every hundred families so resident.* The Fabrique Act.

A succession of Acts were passed in 1829, 1830, 1831, 1832, 1833 and 1834. Education in Canada has almost been the *victim* of legislation, all endeavouring to meet or compromise the discordant views of Roman Catholics and Protestants, and to do Act of 1829.

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* Nearly all the schools established under this Act have now merged into schools managed by Commissioners or Trustees. The terms of union are declared in the Act. "The Fabrique of any parish and the School Commissioners thereof may, by mutual agreement, in due form unite, for one or more years, the Fabrique schools in operation with any of the schools to be kept under the Common School Laws; and any Fabrique contributing not less than $50 by the year towards the support of such school, shall thereby acquire a right to the curé and churchwarden in office to be Commissioners, if they were not so before; but no Fabrique shall so unite its school to those managed by Commissioners of another faith, except under an express and formal agreement with the School Commissioners or Trustees of such other faith." (*School Acts of Lower Canada*, p. 106.)

something for the improvement of the schools. The Act of 1829 provided for the election of school masters in each parish or township, and for the payment of a salary of 20*l.* to each teacher whose school numbered 20 pupils, with a further sum of 10*s.* for every poor child taught free. The Government also undertook to pay, under certain conditions, half the cost of building school-houses, provided the amount in any one year did not exceed 2000*l.*

Committee of 1831.

In 1831 the House of Assembly appointed a standing committee of 11 members to report from time to time on all matters relating to education. In their first report the committee dwelt upon the importance of stimulating local efforts; and in another report in 1836 reiterate the complaint that the aid of the Government had had the effect of paralysing local liberality, instead of developing it. They further noticed the almost universal incompetency of the teachers, and recommended as a remedy the establishment of normal schools.

Bills of 1836.

An Act was passed giving effect to this recommendation, and by way of experiment, money was voted for the maintenance of normal schools at Montreal and at Quebec for five years. A supplementary bill for the establishment of model schools* and giving authority to the majority of the inhabitants of a township to raise a rate for the support of the school was passed by the House of Assembly, but thrown out by the Legislative Council, on the ground that the large sums hitherto voted for education, amounting in the last seven years to an aggregate of $600,000, had had no effect in arousing local interest, while the application of it being left to the county members there was a danger of its being used, and as a fact it had been used, to promote political objects and partizan designs.

The crisis of 1837-38.

At this crisis came the second deluge, that, in reference to education, has devastated Lower Canada,—the political troubles of 1837-8. "When this second calamity befel us," says Mr. Hodgins "there were under the operation of the law 1600 schools, in "which 40,000 children were taught; most of which had to be "closed."

Lord Durham's picture of Canadian education.

When Lord Durham entered the province for the purpose of composing these unhappy differences, one of his first thoughts was turned to education as perhaps the most potent instrument of all for effecting his declared object "the uniting of the two races "and the anglifying the Canadian." In his Report he notices the "lamentable state of ignorance in which he found the people. "It is impossible," he says, "to exaggerate the deficiency of

* The title "Model School" appears to have been used for the first time in this bill. A superior or "Model School" was to be established in each township whose population exceeded 500 souls, to the master of which an allowance was proposed to be made of 50*l.* a year, on the majority of the heads of families at a meeting duly called voting a further sum of not less than 20*l.*, to teach the grammar of the language of the majority of the inhabitants (in addition to reading, writing, and arithmetic), and the elements of mensuration and geography, particularly that of North America. The Lower Canada "Model School" corresponds M. Chauveau told me to the French "*école primaire supérieure.*'

"education among the 'habitants.'" "Go where you will," adds Sir Arthur Buller, "you will scarcely find a trace of educa-"tion among the peasantry. A large portion of the teachers "could neither read nor write." A petition of certain school-masters is mentioned, in which the majority of signatures were those of persons who could only put their mark. The 25,000*l.* a year that had been set apart for education was shamelessly jobbed away by the county members, to whom the law had given the patronage of the schools, upon partizans of their own, utterly and absolutely incompetent. At the same time there was a "singular "superabundance of a defective education existing for the highest "class, which was at the sole disposal of the Catholic clergy." There was no English college in the province; and the need of a general professional education drew every year a large number of young men to the States. He was sorry to be obliged to add that the English Government since it had possessed Canada had done nothing, and had attempted nothing to promote general education.*

Such was the state of things which Lord Durham had to address himself to reform. His short tenure of office allowed him to do no more than suggest; but upon the suggestions offered in the very able Report of Sir Arthur Buller the existing educational systems both of Upper and Lower Canada appear to me, in all their essential features, to be based.

Measures of 1841.

Upon the union of the provinces in 1840 a general plan of education was set in motion. It was at first thought that a combined scheme might be put in operation which should indirectly contribute to what the Government so much desired to effect—the fusion of the two nationalities into one. For this purpose an Act was passed in 1841 embodying many of Sir Arthur Buller's suggestions, and providing for the establishment and maintenance of common schools under a general system in both sections of the province. A Superintendent of Education for the whole province was appointed, with deputy superintendents under him for the eastern and western sections; and a grant was voted of $200,000 for the promotion of popular education, to be divided between the two sections according to their respective populations.

Different circumstances of the two Canadas.

But it was soon found that the circumstances of the two neighbours were so different as to make it impossible to devise a scheme of education which should equally suit the wants and satisfy the demands of each. The population of Upper Canada, speaking generally, was homogeneous. In Lower Canada, education had to deal with and adapt itself to differences of race, differences of language, differences, much more pronounced than in the western section, of religion. In Upper Canada, at the census of 1861, there were but 33,287 natives of French origin, out of a native population of 902,879; and there were not resident in the province

* *Lord Durham's Report*, 1839. I can hardly understand the statement that there "was no English college," as M'Gill College, Montreal, was founded in 1827. But Lord Durham sketched with a strong, though master, hand.

30,000 non-English-speaking immigrants out of a total immigration of 493,212. In Lower Canada on the other hand, of the native population of 1,014,898 only 167,578 were not of French origin; and though, of 96,668 immigrants, only 949 were French, still even with this addition, the non-French population of Lower Canada would stand to the bulk of its inhabitants in the proportion of only one to four. Again, of the 1,396,091 who constituted the population of Upper Canada, only 258,141 belonged to the Church of Rome; while of the 1,111,566 Lower Canadians, 943,253 were members of that religious communion. With the fixed ideas that the Catholic hierarchy have always held on the subject of education, from which they never deviate as long as they can possibly be maintained, it was obvious that one system of education, administered by a single hand, could not be applied to populations differing in such essential features.

Revision of 1846.

Accordingly in 1846 the school law was thoroughly revised and adapted, as was thought, to the peculiar wants of each section, as ascertained by experience. The nominal office of Provincial Superintendent was abolished and the entire executive administration of the system was confided to the sectional Superintendents. The principle of local taxation, which had already been introduced with success into Upper Canada, was substituted, as an experiment, for the voluntary contributions which had previously prevailed in the lower provinces. It encountered, however, such general and such vehement opposition, that it had to be made permissive only, not compulsory; and at this present hour, in many parts of the country, the preference for the voluntary principle still remains.*

Appointment of M. Chauveau in 1855.

In 1855 the present Chief Superintendent of Education in Lower Canada, M. Pierre Chauveau, entered upon the duties of his office and immediately applied himself with vigour to introduce some improvements into the law. Upon his recommendation the

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* *See Superintendent's Report (French Edition) for* 1864. "Toute la population a cœur de conserver ses écoles indépendantes. J'y ai entendu dire " par plusieurs personnes, 'Nous aimons mieux nous passer de l'octroi et " 'payer d'avantage—nous tenons à soutenir nos écoles volontairement.'" p. 16. " Les écoles sont encore entretenues par des contributions volontaires, mais les " contribuables paient regulièrement et libéralement, et plusieurs des institu- " teurs ont des salaires plus élevés que dans les municipalités où les " cotisations sont établies. Néammoins, je comprends qu'il serait encore " plus avantageux que le système des cotisations fût établi. J'ai tout lieu de " croire qu'on en viendra là bientôt." p. 41. " Dans cette municipalité, les " commissaires ont passé une résolution pour établir le système des cotisations " en remplacement de la contribution volontaire, mais comme un certain nombre de contribuables s'y sont opposés avec force, la résolution fut rappelée, " et les commissaires sont décidés à ne plus imposer de taxe sans consulter les " contribuables. Une assemblée a eu lieu à ce sujet dans le mois de mai dernier; " j'étais présent à cette assemblée qui, malheureusement, n'était composée que " de personnes opposées à l'établissement du système des cotisations. J'eus " beau leur faire valoir les avantages de la taxe; ils votèrent contre son " établissement et pour le maintien de la contribution volontaire." p. 43. I may mention here that, through the courtesy of M. Chauveau, I received a copy of his report for 1864 just before leaving America; so that my statistics of the Lower Province are a year nearer to the present date than those of the Upper.

Legislature sanctioned a fresh mode of distributing the Superior Education Fund; the establishment of three normal schools instead of one; the appointment of a Council of Public Instruction, similar in constitution to that existing in the Upper Province; the publication of a Journal of Education, in French and English, for the purpose of awakening and sustaining local interest, and the creation of a special fund, as in Upper Canada, for superannuated common school teachers. Since this date little has been done in the way of fresh legislation; but M. Chauveau is continually labouring to secure a firmer foothold for the system among the still recalcitrant local authorities, and thinks that more solid good may be effected by continually pushing public opinion gently in advance than by introducing any sweeping measure of change for which, however likely to prove beneficial, the public mind might not be prepared; and I believe it is admitted both by Protestants and Roman Catholics that the system, as administered in his hands, is administered impartially, considerately, and effectively.* That, as existing at present, it has many defects and is susceptible of vast improvements, M. Chauveau himself would be one of the first to allow; every competent inquirer must be as ready to confess that, with so many counteracting influences and so many conflicting interests, the remedy of those defects and the introduction of these improvements can only be a work of patience and of time.† His policy.

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* Principal Dawson in demanding, as a reform of the present system, in view of Federation, "a separate Protestant Superintendent and Council of "Public Instruction, the latter to represent as fairly as may be, the leading "Protestant denominations," is careful to add: "The ground for this demand "is not any dissatisfaction with the administration of educational affairs by "the present Superintendent. On the contrary, I believe it will be admitted "that under his management, education has made substantial advances, and "the defects of the existing system have been greatly modified, or have been at "least smoothed over in such a manner as to rob them of many obnoxious "features. But this circumstance makes us all the more uneasy. The power "now wielded with tact and firmness, and under the Government of United "Canada, may produce the most opposite effects, under an officer of different "character, and without the checks and encouragements offered by the exist-"ing union" (*On Some Points in the History and Prospects of Protestant Education in Lower Canada*, p. 13).

† M. Chauveau shall describe his own policy. "I have pointed out in my "previous reports the best measures to be adopted for the perfection of our sys-"tem of education; and I would repeat that important as are some of the mea-"sures proposed and still under the consideration of the Government, "particularly those that were adverted to in my report on the inspection "of schools, a great deal also depends on the influence which public opinion "can bring to bear upon the local authorities, in whose hands the law has "placed so large a share of the initiative and responsibility. The most diffi-"cult task is that which consists in directing these local authorities without "infringing on their powers, or discouraging any of the school commissioners "or functionaries who may be bravely struggling against difficulties, without, "however, being able to obtain all that might be desired in the interest of the "progress of education. If in this matter the Department should have ap-"peared to some persons as wanting in energy or firmness, it may be well to "observe that on many occasions a different course might have jeopardized "results which, unimportant as they may seem, have only been obtained with "much difficulty" (*Report* for 1863, p. 13).

Difference between the education systems of the two Canadas.

The Lower Canadian system of education differs from that which has been adopted in the Upper Province, both in an essential constitutional feature, and in the greater simplicity of the machinery by which it attempts to carry out its objects. It is more bureaucratic; and it demands the services of a smaller number of functionaries in its administration. There are fewer links in the official chain. The principle of subordination is strictly maintained. The Chief Superintendent—the school commissioners, (or, in the case of dissentient schools, the school trustees), the school—these three elements practically represent the organization There is a Council of Public Instruction, similarly constituted and with corresponding powers to the Council of Public Instruction in the Upper Province: but in both cases the dignity of the body is more considerable than its authority, and the Chief Superintendent really is its executive officer.

Again, there are Inspectors,—officers, too, clothed with certain important visitatorial duties; but these again, by the very terms of their appointment, "have all the powers and authority of the "Superintendent of Education," and are in fact his representatives and deputies, rather than school officers acting with an independence of their own.*

There is no County Council concerned with education in Lower as there is in Upper Canada; no school section trustees. The county or circuit Board of Public Instruction is exchanged for eight boards of examiners for the province,† appointed by the Governor on the recommendation of the Chief Superintendent, and therefore more departmental in character than their Upper Canadian analogues. The Inspectors, as we have seen, are departmental too; while the local Superintendent of Upper Canada is distinctly a municipal officer. This difference of character is, perhaps, directly traceable to historical causes, and

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* M. Chauveau thus differences, himself, the two systems, "In both "sections of the Province, the system of public instruction is both depart- "mental and municipal; but in Upper Canada, it partakes more of the latter "than of the former; and there is nothing surprising in the fact, that the "same principle also predominates in the inspection. In Lower Canada the "opposite is the true state of things, and those persons who wish to see the "system of Upper Canada introduced, independently of any other considera- "tion, should premise the assimilation of the two school codes, and provide "for the relief of the Department from a hundred faculties and duties which it "would become impossible to exercise and discharge" (*Report of the Superintendent of Education for Lower Canada in relation to the Inspectors of Schools* p. 16). I omit in my sketch of the organization two shadowy bodies—"Managers," whom the school commissioners may associate with themselves permanently, or for a time only, to aid them in matters connected with the administration of the *school-houses*—corresponding, therefore, somewhat to a "prudential committee" in Massachusetts, and "School Visitors"—functionaries similar to those called by the same name in Upper Canada,—who seem to have no very well defined duties. As to the Managers, I doubt if they have often any real existence. I see no notice of them in the Reports.

† Such at least is the number prescribed in the school law, p. 93. But the boards appear to have been multiplied, and in the report for 1863, p. 11 18 boards are enumerated, including the Catholic and Protestant subdivisions of the boards of Quebec, Montreal and Bedford.

finds its counterpart in the social phenomena of the two provinces. In Upper Canada Anglo-Saxon municipal institutions and the ideas of local self-government took early and strong root. In Lower Canada, one still hears of "seignorial dues" and the other incidents of a feudal tenure.

School law of Lower Canada.

The school law of Lower Canada is said to be "consolidated;" but it is still a jumble, mixing up together "things new and old," through which I should have felt it difficult to pick my way, if, in the office of M. Chauveau, I had not found myself in the "house "of the interpreter." He is fully aware of its inconsistencies and difficulties, which have arisen from the amalgamation of statutes of different dates without sufficient care having always been taken to see that the provisions of one did not conflict with those of another. "We call it consolidated; but, in fact," he said, playfully, "it is "still only in the nebular phase." As long, however, as his interpretations of it pass unquestioned and no practical contradictions arise, he is content to be blind to its theoretic imperfections. And such, perhaps, under the circumstances, would be the course of a wise administrator. But the condition of the law makes the Chief Superintendent almost an autocrat.*

M. Chauveau's description of the difficulties encountered by the system.

* It is thus M. Chauveau describes the difficulties the system has had to conquer, and his own position in consequence:

"Let us look back to the time when the present school system was inaugurated in Lower Canada, and we shall confess that the undertaking was at its outset apparently a moral impossibility. The establishment of a system of public instruction by the agency of local and municipal authorities, themselves elective, amidst a population who had always been opposed to every system of direct taxation, among whom primary instruction had been, by a succession of occurrences ever to be regretted, almost completely interrupted for a period of 10 years, was in truth asking men of no education to educate others—men who set their faces against all taxes to tax themselves for a purpose of the importance of which they were ignorant. The law, moreover, had only prescribed one restriction as regards the choice of Commissioners, and that restriction, however favourable to the ratepayers, was very far from being so to the establishment of schools. In order to be a Commissioner it was not necessary, (nor indeed is it so now,) to have any education whatsoever, to know even how to read or write; all that was required was to be a ratepayer as the owner of real property. There was nothing to prevent the election of five proprietors at once the most ignorant, and the most hostile to taxes of any kind. And this used to be done, and unhappily is done still, though not so frequently. It is true that on the one hand the law had enacted various penalties, and that on the other hand it counted on the efforts and zeal of educated men, at the head of whom would naturally be found members of the clergy. It counted, moreover (and this has not proved the least important element of success), on the good sense, the spirit of order, and the peaceful and pious habits of the population. But these penalties and restrictions had been valueless without the aid of the central authority to apply them. It was necessary that the zeal and the efforts of educated men should be seconded and sustained by an authority independent of that which it was intended to supervise, frequently even to control. In fact, the good disposition of the Canadian people required to be stimulated and developed by men specially charged with that mission, and receiving fair remuneration for their struggles with men—educated men, but, unfortunately, partizans of ignorance, with a view to the attainment of political ends. Thence arose the office of Inspector, and only since its creation has any progress been made.

"Since that time the opposition to schools has not ceased to exist, but it has taken a fresh direction. It is no longer directed against taxation abso-

The public school fund twofold.

The public fund at the disposal of the Educational Department for the purpose of establishing and assisting schools is divided into two heads—a "superior education fund" arising from the suppressed Jesuit estates and other supplementary sources, including an annual Parliamentary grant of $20,000 (which, however, even in the aggregate, is insufficient for its objects), and a "common school fund," arising out of the consolidated revenue of the province, annually voted by the Legislature. Both funds are stated by the Superintendent to be lamentably inadequate to their objects, and this inadequacy seriously cripples both the influence of the Department of the efficiency of the schools. The accumulated deficit, indeed, in the account of the Superior Education Fund is said to nearly equal the capital of the fund itself; and a number of necessary improvements, such as the establishment of parochial libraries and the construction and repair of school-houses, most of which are reported to be in an unsatisfactory condition, cannot be attempted.*

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lutely (though in many places there is still a predilection in favour of the illusory resource of voluntary subscription); but its aim is now to prevent the increase of teachers' salaries, to impede the establishment of model (*i.e.*, superior primary) schools, and to oppose all improvements necessary to promote the progress of education. So well aware of this were the Legislature and the Government, that every succeeding session has conferred new powers on the Department, to enable it to contend with these fatal proclivities. Now the powers thus assigned and those which the law had already given could be exercised only by the medium and aid of agents appointed by the Government, paid by the Government, and responsible to the Government" (*Report on Inspection*, p. 15-16).

State of the superior education fund.

* "Le besoin le plus urgent de ce département, celui sur lequel je n'ai cessé d'insister, c'est le réglement de ses difficultés financières. Ces difficultés existaient déjà en 1855, antérieurement à ma nomination et à la passation de la loi de l'éducation supérieure. Le parlement votait la subvention annuelle de l'éducation supérieure mais avec cette restriction qu'une certaine partie seulement de cette subvention serait prise sur le revenu annuel de la province, et que le reste serait pris spécialement sur le revenu des Biens des Jésuites et sur la balance de la subvention des écoles communes. Or, les sommes votées chaque année, excédant toujours ces deux dernières ressources, il en était résulte un déficit considérable. La passation de la loi de l'éducation supérieure a continué le même état de choses: ses dispositions en ce qui concerne les sources d'où doit provenir la subvention de l'éducation supérieure ne diffèrent point des conditions que l'on vient d'exposer. La part revenant au Bas-Canada sur l'allocation supplémentaire votée pour les écoles communes chaque année, se trouve absorbée sans qu'il soit possible d'augmenter la subvention de ces écoles, et il y a plus un déficit qui représente presque aujourd'hui le capital du fonds de l'éducation supérieure lui-même. Il suit de là qu'il est très-difficile d'augmenter les diverses subventions dont j'ai si souvent représenté l'insuffisance. Au nombre des améliorations qui se trouvent ainsi retardées est la création et l'augmentation des bibliothèques paroissiales; . . . il n'a pas été possible non plus d'accorder aucune subvention pour la construction et les réparations de maisons d'écolé. . . . Enfin, la subvention ordinaire des écoles communes, ainsi que la subvention supplémentaire des municipalités pauvres exigeraint d'autant plus une augmentation que la somme totale distribuée restant la même, la subvention de chaque municipalité se trouve de temps à autre diminuée, à mésure qu'il s'en crée des nouvelles ou que la population augmente dans quelques-unes d'elles, tandis qu'elle demeure relativement stationnaire dans les autres. Cela est d'autant plus regrettable que la suspension de la subvention est un des moyens les plus efficaces d'action pour le département; ou pourrait même dire, la seule sanction efficace à ses instructions et à ses reglements, et que moins cette subvention est considérable, moin aussi l'espèce d'autorité qui en découle est

There is a so-called "Superior Education Fund" of $20,000 annually appropriated out of the consolidated revenue of the province for the encouragement of superior education in Upper Canada, which is distributed by Parliament among the several collegiate educational institutions in that section of the province; but the Superior Educational Fund of Lower Canada is both of larger amount and of wider scope than this, and includes within its purview not only universities and colleges, but academies, normal colleges, model schools, and also inspectors' salaries and township libraries. Superior education fund.

It is provided by law that the income of this fund in no one year shall fall short of the sum of $88,000; and any deficiency below that amount is to be made up out of the Common School fund, which of course suffers proportionably. The annual income is to be "apportioned by the Superintendent of Education in and "amongst the universities, colleges, seminaries, academies, high "or superior schools, model schools, and educational institutions "other than the ordinary elementary schools, in such manner and "in such sums and proportions to each of them as the Governor in "Council approves."* It is apportioned by the Superintendent, not upon any defined or prescribed principle, as is the case with the common school fund, but according to his own notions of general equity or the particular requirements of each case; his apportionment, however, is liable to revision, and, as a fact, is generally revised and more or less modified, in the office of the Provincial Secretary. The grants are annual, not permanent; and the Its amount. How apportioned.

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respectée." (*Report for* 1864, p. xviii.) The same report speaks of "l'insuffisance de la plupart des maisons d'école, leurs dimensions trop petites, et leur distribution intérieure défavorable à l' hygiène et aux progrès de l'instruction publique." (p. v.)

* *Lower Canada School Act*, p. 62–6. It may be as well to attempt to distinguish (though the attempt will not be very easy, where the terms are used so loosely) these different classes of schools. Seminaries and academies are mostly boarding schools, either under the direction of some religious order or of lay trustees: "Des académies ou des pensionnats dirigés par des religieux ou des religieuses, ou sous le controle de syndics" (*Report for* 1864, p. xiii.) "High or superior schools" are all of private foundation, mostly ecclesiastical, with varying constitutions. "Model schools" are superior primary schools, established by the School Commissioners, and forming part of the common school system. In the appropriation list for 1864 the educational institutions assisted out of the Superior Education Fund are arranged in six classes, receiving the amount placed opposite to each:

1. Universities	$4,717
2. Classical colleges (11)	$13,359
3. Industrial colleges (13)	$7,863
4. Boys' academies (64)	$13,417
5. Girls' academies (67)	$10,481
6. Model schools (158)	$17,219
Total	$67,056

This fund is further charged with the payment of the Inspectors' salaries, which exceed $19,000; with an annual sum not to exceed $14,000 for the support of the normal schools; and with a sum not exceeding $2,000 in any one year for the formation of township libraries.

Governor in Council may attach to them any conditions which are deemed advantageous for the furtherance of this object;* and each educational institution claiming a share of the grant must make an annual application to that effect, and must accompany such application with a detailed financial and statistical report of its condition.

Common school fund.

I am not able to speak with positive certainty of the sources or amount of the common school fund of Lower Canada. The law only gives directions for its apportionment; the reports do not exhibit any statistical table completely setting forth its character. It appears, however, that at some date, which I have no means of ascertaining, Parliament appropriated 1,000,000 acres of land for the support of common schools in each part of the province, the proceeds arising from its moiety of which form, I presume, the permanent capital and income of the Lower Canada fund. I presume further, from M. Chauveau's mention of a "supplementary appropriation voted each year for common "schools," at the same time that he states that "the total sum "distributed remains the same," that the parliamentary vote is only taken to bring up the income of the permanent capital, which may be fluctuating, to the fixed sum required. The total amount distributed, apparently, reaches about $150,000, of which about $112,000 are apportioned to common schools. I am sorry to have to make what looks like so loose a statement; but the very confused state of the law and the absence of any general balance-sheet or definite explanation in the Report, render it impossible to make it more precise; and I believe it to be sufficiently accurate for any practical inferences that may be drawn from it.†

How apportioned.

The income of this fund, or at least that portion of it which is appropriated each year to common schools, is divided twice a year by the Chief Superintendent of Education among the several municipalities according to their respective populations, and then passes into the hands of the school commissioners (or trustees of

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* One condition recommended to be attached to the grant of 1864 is that every teacher in an institution assisted from this source must be furnished with a proper diploma (*Report for* 1864, Append. 4. p. 3).

Common school fund.

† Mr. Hodgins, in enumerating the various endowments available for educational purposes in Upper Canada, mentions "half of the Parliamentary appro- "priation of one million of acres of land for common schools in each part of "the province," which would assign to Lower Canada 500,000 acres (*Sketch*, p. 10). M. Chauveau speaks of "la part revenant au Bas-Canada sur l'alloca- "tion supplémentaire votée pour les écoles communes chaque année;" and also of "la somme totale distribuée restant la même" (*Report for* 1864, p. xviii). The School Law speaks of the "legislative school grant, "*permanent and additional*, for common school purposes in Lower Canada" (*Acts respecting Education*, p. 92–98). The grant is liable, before apportionment to common schools, to a previous charge: (1) of a sum not exceeding $4,000 for special aid to common schools in poor municipalities; (2) of a sum not exceeding $1,800 to encourage the publication and circulation of a journal of public instruction; (3) of a sum not exceeding $2,000 towards forming a superannuated teachers' fund; and (4) of a sum not exceeding $6,000 to defray the salaries of officers and other contingent expenses of the normal schools. The apportionment to common schools in 1864 amounted to nearly $114,000. The variations in this amount for the eight years 1856–64 have been very slight, but there have been variations (See *Report for* 1864, p. xiv).

dissentient schools, as the case may be), and is further distributed amongst the several school districts in each municipality in proportion to the number of children between seven and 14 years of age residing therein and capable of attending school.* In order to entitle a school to its allowance certain precedent conditions have to be fulfilled. It must have been under the management of commissioners or trustees as directed by the Act. It must have been in actual operation under a duly qualified teacher during at least eight months of the year. It must have been attended by at least 15 children, periods of epidemic or contagious disease excepted.† It must have undergone a public examination. The proper certified returns of reports must have been made. A sum equal to the allowance made by the Legislature must have been raised in the municipality.‡ The Chief Superintendent has also authority to refuse the grant in cases where complete accounts have not been rendered of the way in which the school moneys of the preceding years have been applied;§ where the instructions of the Council have been disobeyed; where unqualified teachers have been employed, or where a qualified teacher has been dismissed without a sufficient notice or for an unjust or invalid cause.‖

On what conditions.

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* A girls' school and the model (or superior primary) school of the municipality are each reckoned as a school district. And the sum of $80 is to be deducted prior to distribution for the special support of the model school, without prejudice to its share in the subsequent distribution as a district school. The principle of division stated in the text, viz., in proportion to the number of children in the district between seven and fourteen, applies to the distribution of the local assessment raised to meet the legislative grant as well as to that grant itself. With a view of removing the prejudice, which was once universal and still exists in some localities, against the principle of assessment, voluntary contributions are allowed to be substituted for taxation in municipalities where this mode of collecting the money is preferred. As an illustration of the primitive state of some of the municipalities, the law allows the commissioners to "receive the amount of such rates, and of the monthly payments for the "children, *in produce*, at prices to be fixed by them."

† This, however, is not peremptory; and the allowance may be paid in cases where the attendance has fallen below this level, provided the managers "have "endeavoured in good faith to carry out the law." The law does not say "*average* attendance."

‡ Relaxation is permitted here, also, in the case of an "indigent municipality." In 1864 there were about 25 municipalities in whose favour the law was relaxed.

§ This apparently is a very necessary precaution. It is stated that secretary-treasurers have frequently been guilty of large embezzlements. Indeed, in M. Chauveau's Report on Inspection, he makes the startling assertion "as certain, "that the inspectors have detected, stopped, or prevented defalcations of the "secretary-treasurers *to an amount in the aggregate far exceeding their* "*salaries*," (p. 2.)

‖ If in any district there is no school in operation, the School Commissioners or Trustees shall deposit the money to which such district would have been entitled, at interest in some bank, where, with the consent of the inhabitants of such district, they shall allow it to accumulate during a term which shall not exceed four years, to be thereafter by them used either in the purchase of ground for, or in building, a school-house, or towards other educational purposes in such district.

It seems to me that throughout the Lower Canada School Law the powers of Commissioners and Trustees (who, in their very nature, represent opposite interests, separated by the sharpest of all dividing lines, the line of religious

Statistics of 1864.

The amount distributed among the municipalities in the shape of legislation grant in 1864, was, as has already been stated, about $114,000. This was met by a hypothetically equal sum, raised either by rate or voluntary contribution on the spot, of $112,158; over and above which necessary assessment there was raised at the same time and in the same way the further sum of $160,028 (including $15,553 for the erection of school-houses); and a yet additional income accrued to the schools, of $321,037 from school fees (*rétribution mensuelle*). The total income of the municipalities of Lower Canada for the purposes of elementary schools in 1864 was $593,264; an increase upon 1863, of nearly $30,000; and upon 1856 of nearly $190,000. Out of this sum were supported 3604 schools, and were instructed 196,739 scholars: giving an average of about 60 scholars to a school, and a cost of about

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difference), and particularly their powers in this matter of apportioning the School Fund, are mixed up in a way that must be productive of endless disputes and quarrelling. It appears from M. Chauveau, that "the apportioning "of the government grant between Commissioners and Trustees" is a frequent function of the Inspector: but it must be by the voluntary submission of the parties to his arbitration, for no such power is given to him in the law, unless it be by implication, viz. that the Inspector represents, and may have delegated to him, the powers of the Chief Superintendent; and this functionary has certain indefinite and autocratic powers to correct any "difficulties of a grave "nature on the subject of schools which may occur in any municipality" (*Acts respecting Education*, p. 70). In fact, the general state of the law, on the confession of the Chief Superintendent, appears to be fruitful of difficulties, which it seems to be the Inspector's duty, as representing the Superintendent, to remedy as best he may. Neither Inspector nor Superintendent enjoys a sinecure.

"Not to speak," says M. Chauveau, "of the ordinary superintendence "which they are to exercise over schools and schoolmasters and all their appli- "ances, and over commissioners' and secretary-treasurers' accounts, the num- "berless and never-ending difficulties which are always occurring relative to "the formation and division of school districts, and the choice of sites for "school-houses are generally settled by their inquiries and reports, as are those "arising about the division or bounding of school municipalities; the claims "for money consequent on such changes between different municipalities; the "establishment of dissentient schools and the apportioning of the government "grant between commissioners and trustees; the possession of school-houses "(often a subject of dispute between the two bodies when they exist in one "locality); indemnity claimed by teachers who allege they have been unjustly "dismissed; complaints of *curés*, parents and ratepayers, assistant commis- "sioners or teachers: the imposition of extraordinary rates to pay off debt or "build school-houses; the apportionment of the school fund to different dis- "tricts; the auditing and giving up their accounts by secretary-treasurers; "in short, about the inauguration and maintenance of model schools, which "are almost always unpopular at first. On all these matters the law has con- "ferred on the Superintendent a jurisdiction in appeal from the decisions of "the commissioners, and a kind of administrative power of arbitration which, "in case of need, finds its sanction in the confiscation of the government grant. "All these questions, some of which may appear rather trivial at the first "glance, are nevertheless, very interesting in all places where they arise, but "generally connected with the family and local heart-burnings and party "quarrels which unhappily divide our parishes. They are also exaggerated "by differences of religion, language and origin. None but those whose ex- "perience has taught them can have an idea of the importance attached to "triumph, and of the rancour which lingers in the breasts of the defeated "party" (*Report on Inspection*, p. 8–9). This passage, though not very

Varied duties of inspectors.

$3 to a scholar.* It is thought that there are quite as many schools disseminated in the municipalities, as is compatible with their efficiency; and the action of the Department has lately been directed, and it is promised, will continue to be directed to the reunion of districts which are too small to maintain each its own independent school.

The law of rate-bills in Lower Canada.

There is a peculiarity in the Lower Canadian law in respect of the monthly rate-bill. It is leviable for eight months, not merely on every child in the district who attends school, but on every child in the district between the ages of seven and 14 years, who is capable of attending school. The amount of the fee must not exceed 40 cents a month, and must not be less than five cents, except in the case of a model school, where a higher fee may be demanded, at the discretion of the commissioners. The liability of attendants and non-attendants equally to this payment (which, however, though capable of being legally enforced, is not always exacted,) is considered by the Superintendent to be one of the surest means to obtain regular and numerous attendance: and he thinks that the indulgence shown to several municipalities who have been allowed to substitute the method of supplementary assessment for that of school fees, ought not to be longer conceded, unless the attendance of children at their schools improves.

School municipalities.

The "Municipalities," so often spoken of, it should be understood, are municipalities constituted for the special purposes of schools by the Governor in Council, who has power not only to establish new ones, as occasions arise, but to alter the limits and make subdivisions of the old; and may or may not be co-extensive with what are called in the School Act, the "local municipalities," which exist for other civil objects. The executive officers of the school municipality are a corporation known by the name of "School Commissioners," or, in the case of dissentient schools, "School Trustees," whose business it is to divide the municipality into districts, (*arrondissements,*) and to see that an elementary common school is established in each.

There are 638 school municipalities in Lower Canada, which have been divided into 3223 school districts. No district is to contain less than 20 children between the ages of five and 16 years.†

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coherently written, is sufficiently intelligible, and represents a state of things which must render the working of any school law—particularly of a loosely constructed and loosely phrased school law—a matter of exceeding difficulty. That it is found to be so practically is evident from the reports of the Inspectors, and indeed, I doubt if the system could be got to work at all, if it were not for the large powers vested in the Superintendent, in whose fairness and integrity both parties seem to have confidence.

* It is right, however, to mention "que le chiffre des honoraires payés dans "les colléges, et beaucoup d'autres sommes depensées pour l'éducation ne "s'y trouvent point comprises" (*Report for* 1864, p. xiv.) I cannot reconcile the statistical discrepancies of the report: at p. 141, the "totale des institu- "tions de tout genre" is set down at only 3589, and the number of pupils at 195,032. It is true the difference is not very considerable.

The school age.

† The age of from five to 16 is that within which every child residing in a school district has a right to attend the school thereof, upon payment of the

Idea of the system.

The *idea* of the system is that in each municipality there should be a "superior primary" or "model" school, corresponding nearly to the American "grammar school," which is the centre of the municipal organization, and carries its pupils, beyond the elementary subjects of reading, writing and ciphering, which form the staple of the teaching of the inferior primary school,* into the higher mysteries of mensuration (a branch of knowledge much esteemed in both the Canadas,) geography and history. The idea, however, is only partially realized: for in the 638 municipalities there were, in 1864, only 260 model schools—204 for boys and 56 for girls, of which only 158 fulfilled the conditions entitling them to a grant out of the superior education fund.

The model school.

The first establishment of a model school, says M. Chauveau, is always unpopular, and yet the law places them on a very manifest vantage-ground. There is no limit fixed to the amount of the fee which may be demanded from the children attending them. They dip their hands, at the rate of from $50 to $75 a piece, into the superior education fund. They take a lion's share of $80 out of the common school fund apportioned to the municipality, and come in on even terms with the other school districts in the division of the remainder. In every way, the attempt is made to provide a really "superior school." The rate allowed to be levied for building a model school-house may amount to $1,000, while in the case of a common school-house it is forbidden to exceed $500. If, with all these privileges, they are not popular, it can only be because there is no general demand for superior education among the people.† The 260 model schools that existed in 1864, were educating 16,157 boys, and 3,226 girls—19,383 scholars in all.

The elementary school.

Below the model school, in the system, stands what is called the "Elementary School." Of these there were in existence in 1864, 3,109, educating upwards of 140,000 children. 182 were dissentient schools, 48 Catholic and 134 Protestant, in which 6,364 scholars were being taught. The number of independent schools,

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monthly fees; but it is only upon children between the ages of seven and 14 resident within the district upon whom, whether they attend the school or not, a monthly school fee is leviable. The latter age, therefore, says M. Chauveau, "may be considered as indicating the limits of the school population subject "to *compulsion*" (*Report for* 1863, p. 7). This indiscriminate levying of a school fee, which, as we have seen, is often remitted, is the only form which "compulsion" takes in Lower Canada.

* "L'enseignement, pour le plus grand nombre des élèves, se borne à la "lecture, l'écriture, l'orthographe et l'instruction religieuse." Again, "Ici on "n'enseigne guère que la lecture, l'ecriture, l'orthographe et l'instruction "religieuse" (*Report*, 1864, p. 26). In these two cases, not even arithmetic is taught.

Want of zeal for education.

† The apathy of the people towards any form of education is a general complaint of the inspectors. "Chez beaucoup de parents," says one, "on "regarde l'école comme une institution nuisible, inutile ou au moins super-"flue. Et malheureusement, plusieurs des citoyens de cette paroisse qui, par "leur position, leur éducation, leur influence, pourraient donner cours "à de plus saines idées, se tiennent à l'écart et semblent n'avoir pour "l'éducation des enfants du peuple que de stériles sympathies" (*Report* for 1864, p. 25).

that is, schools refusing to be organized under the control of commissioners or trustees or to be brought into connection with the educational department, was 341, with the large number of 25,587 pupils. The origin of the dissentient schools is, of course, the religious difficulty between Catholics and Protestants: the origin of the independent schools is the dislike partly of departmental control, and partly of the principle of a rate. "The whole popu- "lation," says one Inspector, "is resolved on maintaining the "independence of their schools. I have heard people say again "and again, 'We prefer dispensing with the grant, even at the "'cost of paying more out of our own pockets. We stick to "'voluntaryism.'"*

The condition of these elementary schools, speaking generally, does not seem to be very satisfactory. Often there are schools without school-houses†; and still oftener, schools without maps, apparatus, or educational "plant" of any kind.‡ They are frequently closed suddenly, to balance the accounts:§ sometimes are discontinued, because their teachers could not pass the examination for a certificate.‖ Of 200 schools, one inspector reports 100 as good; 60 as moderate, yet not without merit; 40 as bad, and producing no beneficial results.¶ "It is rare," says another, "to "find in these schools a child over 12 years of age."** The attendance in some of them is ridiculously small. "The school "in district No. 9," writes a third inspector, "at the time of its "greatest prosperity since my last visit, has only been attended "by nine children; at the date of my visit, there were but two "present." "It is monstrous," cries this gentleman, "that a "mistress should be employed at a salary of 30*l.* (currency, I

Their condition.

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* *Report* for 1864, p. 16.

† In a statistical table, which enumerates 3109 elementary schools, there are stated to be only 2620 school-houses (*Report* for 1864 p. 140). An Inspector says, "Je n'ai pu, jusqu'à présent, malgré de fréquentes recommandations, "réussir à faire construire une seule maison d' école dans toute l'étendue de "la municipalité" (*Ibid.* p. 21).

‡ *Report of Superintendent* for 1864, p. iii.

§ "On a dû supprimer deux écoles pour rétablir l'équilibre dans les finances." (*Ibid.* p. 27.)

‖ "Sur mon avis, ces deux messieurs se sont presentés devant le bureau "des examinateurs en mai dernièr, mais in l'un ni l'autre ne purent réussir; "en sorte que les deux écoles sont vacantes aujourd'hui" (*Ibid.* p. 18.)

¶ *Ibid.* p. 28. The analysis of these 200 schools will give a fair idea of the average condition of an Inspector's district, and of the means of education within reach of the population of Lower Canada. Of the 200 schools, 175 were elementary schools, attended by 7,109 scholars; 11 were superior primary, or model schools for boys, attended by 773; three were superior primary schools for girls, attended by 173; there were two colleges, attended by 365; seven educational convents, attended by 620; two independent schools, attended by 57. There only wants the "dissentient school" to make it a sort of typical district. Of these 9,907 enrolled scholars, 6,075—or two-thirds of the whole number—were in average daily attendance. The three great obstacles which the Inspector enumerates to the progress of education are: 1. The want of assiduity on the part of scholars; 2. The deficiency of books, stationery, &c.; 3. The insufficiency of teachers' salaries. These complaints are repeated again and again by other Inspectors.

** *Report* for 1864, p. 43.

" presume) to teach the children of two or three families." * Here and there a township or a parish are spoken of as possessing efficient schools: but the general impression which a perusal of the inspectors' reports leaves upon the mind is that the state of elementary education in Lower Canada is not satisfactory; and that, what with the apathy of parents, the irregular attendance of children, the reluctance of the people generally to bear anything in the shape of direct taxation, the poverty and sparseness of he population, the inefficiency of teachers, the cabals and prejudices produced by different political or religious interests, those who are labouring to improve and extend it, have a difficult and disheartening game to play. The range of instruction also must be very limited. Of 195,032 pupils, reported as being taught in the year 1864 in 3589 educational institutions of all kinds (including the model schools and the academies), only 99,351—hardly more than one half—are returned as learning to write; only 111,447 were learning arithmetic.†

Academies and colleges.

I have just spoken of academies. These, with what are called the "Classical Colleges" form the highest class of schools in the province. They do not constitute a part of the common school system, being most of them independent foundations, generally connected with, and directed by, religious orders; but they stand to the primary schools of that system (the elementary and model schools), much in the same relation in which an American high school stands to the schools of inferior grades. Indeed, that there is intended to be a sort of grading in the Lower Canadian system, is evident from the requirements of the law on the subject of teachers' diplomas; nor perhaps can a better idea be formed of the aims of these three classes of schools—the elementary school, the model school, the academy—than from observing the qualifications required in those who are permitted by the law to teach in them.

Certificated teachers.

Certificated teachers, then, in Lower Canada are divided into three classes: "those of schools purely elementary; those of "model schools; and those of the educational establishments "called academies."‡

"For an elementary school, a teacher must show that he possesses acquirements which will enable him to teach, with suc-

* *Report for* 1864, p. 114.

† *Ibid.* p. 141.

‡ *Acts respecting Education*, p. 96. Certificates, as in Upper Canada, are of two kinds: (a). Those granted by the Chief Superintendent to any student of a Normal school who has completed a regular course of study therein; valid, until revoked for some breach of good conduct or good morals, and by virtue whereof such student is eligible to be employed as teacher in any academy, model school, or elementary school; and (b.) those granted by the District Boards of Examiners, available only within a defined territorial limit, for such class of schools as the Governor in Council may from time to time ordain, and for a term of three years from the date of issuing, at the expiration of which term a fresh examination is necessary. Candidates are required to produce certificates of good moral character, and must not be less than 18 years of age.

cess, reading, writing, the elements of grammar and of geography, and arithmetic, as far as the rule of three inclusively."

"For a model school, in addition to the foregoing, the acquirements requisite to enable him to teach grammar, the analysis of the parts of speech, arithmetic in all its branches, book-keeping, geography, the use of the globes, linear drawing, the elements of mensuration and composition."

"For academies (besides the qualifications required for the above-mentioned two classes of teachers) all the branches of a classical education, inasmuch as they are destined to prepare the scholars for the same."

Requirement of a certificate.

"No teacher," says the law, "unless provided with such cer- "tificate of qualification, shall be employed by any persons "entrusted with the management of schools, on pain of losing "their share of the grants made for the encouragement of educa- "tion; nevertheless,"—and here we meet with a large and important exception—"every priest, minister, ecclesiastic, or "person forming a part of a religious community instituted for "educational purposes, and every person of the female sex, being "a member of any religious community, shall be in every case "exempt from undergoing an examination."*

How far complied with.

The extent to which this privilege operates may be estimated from the following figures: In the 3,589 educational institutions (secondary as well as primary schools) already mentioned, there appear to have been employed in the year 1864, 4,531 teachers, 1,236 men and 3,295 women, of whom 697 men and 2,439 women *were*, 539 men and 856 women *were not*, "furnished with diplomas."†

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* *Acts respecting Education*, p. 97.

† It will be observed that the proportion of the sexes of teachers is reversed in Upper and Lower Canada respectively. In the lower province we see the American preference for female teachers.

Teachers' salaries.

This may be as good a place as any for saying a few words on Lower Canadian salaries. The *maximum* salary of a male teacher is $1,200, of a female teacher $500; the *minimum* salary of a male is $48, of a female $32. Sixty male teachers received, in 1864, less than $100 a year, 387 between $100 and $200, 284 between $200 and $400; only 48 received salaries exceeding $400; of the female teachers only one received more than $400, 71 received between $200 and $400, 1,103 were paid between $100 and $200, 1,174 had less than $100 (See *Report for* 1864, p. 143). I find it impossible to make the figures in the statistical tables of the report tally with one another, and these figures agree neither with the total number of teachers nor with the number certificated. Perhaps some of the returns from which the table was compiled were imperfect. The general inference that one would draw from the table is, however, confirmed by special cases noticed by the Inspectors, and the teachers of Lower Canada cannot certainly be considered a highly salaried class. Living, however, is cheap in the country districts, and the value of the dollar is not depreciated as in the States. "Les commissaires," writes an inspector, "sont disposés à donner $200 à chaque instituteur, outre le logement "et le chauffage: mais je dois faire observer que la vie ici est à bon marché, et "que $200 en cet endroit équivalent à $300 à Québec ou à Montréal."—(p. 17.) This gentleman mentions the further fact that "dans la municipalité "toutes les écoles sont fermées, sur refus des mâitres de se conformer à la loi." This reluctance to undergo examination, together with quarrels between the

The academies.

But to return to the academies. In the statistical table so often quoted there are reported to have been in operation in the year 1864, 83 academies, 29 colleges, and 102 educational convents. Under the head of "colleges" are included both "classical" and "industrial" institutions, of which it appears from another table that there were 13 of the former class and 15 of the latter.* In the academies are reported 7,475 pupils; in the colleges, 5,476; in the convents, 19,951; giving a total of about 33,000 pupils receiving secondary or higher education in the province, as compared with about 160,000 pupils receiving primary. Of these pupils by far the larger proportion are day scholars, the rest are either boarders or what is called "half-boarders."† The range of study is wide and various, but comparatively few pupils appear to pursue the higher branches. I will illustrate this statement by the particulars of 64 boys' or mixed academies, which in 1864 were educating 4,831 boys and 1,463 girls, 6,294 pupils in all, of whom 5,255 were under and 1,039 over 16 years of age. The number of teachers employed was 166, on the average one to 38 pupils, of whom 117 were lay and 49 "religious" teachers, 40 of the whole number being mistresses.

Their range of study.

Bearing in mind that we are dealing with 6,294 scholars, the following figures will illustrate better than any other information which I have at command the actual educational results of this class of schools: 4,260 were learning arithmetic, 2,615 were practised in mental calculations, 474 studied algebra, 346 geometry, 34 trigonometry, 20 conic sections, 133 differential and integral calculus, 122 natural philosophy, 97 astronomy, 24 were learning to take meteorological observations, 55 studied chemistry, 320 natural history, 1,580 French-speaking scholars were learning English, 402 English-speaking scholars were learning French, 228 learnt Latin grammar, nine were practised in Latin composition, seven were learning Greek grammar, one was practising Greek composition, 2,510 were taught geography, 1,740 sacred history, 339 ancient history, 355 English history, 257 French history, 1,244 the history of Canada, 103 the history of the United States, 66 Belles lettres, 103 rhetoric, 37 intellectual and moral philosophy, 23 the elements of constitutional law, 144

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managers and the teacher, are frequently mentioned as causes of schools being closed. An objectionable sort of "truck-system" of payments is condemned. "Le système établi dans cette municipalité, ainsi que dans plusieurs autres, de "payer les mâitres avec des ordres chez les marchands, et même avec des "produits, est fort peu recommandable" (p. 49). We have already seen that permission is given by the law to pay school-rates and monthly fees in produce. I suppose the use of this permission leads to the practice referred to.

* Again the figures do not agree: 15+13=28 only, not 29. The discrepancy may perhaps be explained by one college not receiving any grant, and so not being entered in the second table.

Proportion of boarders to day scholars.

† The proportion of day scholars to boarders is larger in the schools for boys (as was to be expected) than in the schools for girls. In 64 "boys or mixed "academies" the numbers are given thus:—5,885 day scholars, 289 half-boarders, 120 boarders. In 83 girls' schools the figures are 13,119, 1564, 2403 respectively. Of these, 16,911 were Catholics, and only 175 Protestants. In the boys or mixed schools there were 1,907 of the latter to 4,387 of the former.

theoretical, 75 practical agriculture, 13 horticulture, 421 were pursuing a special commercial course, 360 were learning linear drawing, 20 architecture, 19 painting, 184 instrumental, 600 vocal music, 121 were taught to swim, 20 were learning to ride.

Period of their course.

The course of study occupies from three to six years. In the year preceding the report 173 scholars left, having completed the course; 217 left, having pursued the course more than half way, 156 of whom proceeded with their studies elsewhere. The careers of the quitting students for the last two years are thus enumerated: 105 intended to be teachers, 153 to farm, 31 to practise at the bar, 11 to practice medicine, six to become notaries, six surveyors, 284 were destined for commerce, 156 for some other branch of industry.

Income and expenditure.

Some of these academies have endowments of land or seigniorial rights, but the general account of their financial condition is that their income arises from three chief sources: (1) the Government subvention; (2) fees of pupils; (3) sums received from the Commissioners of the municipality.* The ordinary fee for tuition ranges from $10 to $15 a year; the charge for board from $120 to $160. The total expenditure of the 64 institutions for 1864 is set down at $38,830, a sum very little exceeding the rate of $6 per scholar. As already noticed, the number of boarders and half-boarders is very small, only 309 out of 6,294, or, of course the cost would be very much higher. As it is, many of the teachers must be employed at very low salaries, for, if the whole expenditure went to pay the teachers, the latter would be only receiving, on the average, $\frac{38,830 \text{ dolls.}}{166.}$, about $225 a piece.

Classical colleges.

The so-called "classical colleges" are meant to be a step higher in the educational scale than the "academies." The Chief Superintendent's Report for 1864 contains statistical details respecting 13 of these institutions, of which all but two (the Seminaries of Quebec and Montreal) receive Government aid out of the Superior Education Fund. It has been already stated that the principle of the distribution of this fund is not defined by law, but appears to be left to the general sense of equity of the Chief Superintendent, subject to the approval of the Governor in Council. The total amount of the subsidy granted to 11 of these colleges in 1864 was $13,359, which appears to have been at the rate of from $5 to $7 per pupil in each. In one case, however (Morin College), the rate was $13; in another (St. François, Richmond) nearly $9. In

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A specimen case.

* I take one case as a sample. "L'Académie Catholique se compose de 380 "élèves sous la direction des frères des écoles chrétiennes. On y enseigne "l'anglais, le français, les mathématiques, la géométrie, le dessin, avec le plus "grand soin. Leurs classes sont munies de tout ce qui est nécessaire. Ils "reçoivent $600 de la ville, et retirent à peu près la même somme de leurs "élèves internes, et ont de plus la subvention de l'éducation supérieure" (*Report for* 1864, p. 92). It should be added in this relation that of the 6,294 pupils, 1,319 received instruction gratuitously.

this last case there appears to have been some replacement of a deduction made, or a penalty incurred, in a previous year.*

Statistics respecting them.

Of these 13 colleges all but the two Seminaries of Montreal and Quebec—the latter founded in 1663, the former in 1773—have been established in the present century, five of them within the last five-and-twenty years. All but three,—the college of St. Marie, and the M'Gill High School at Montreal, and the college at Three Rivers,—possess real property, to the estimated capital amount of more than a million and a quarter of dollars. All receive fees from pupils, and all but the two Seminaries draw a subvention from the Superior Education Fund. The fees for instruction vary from $10 to $15 a year; the charge for board is from $60 to $150, and in one case, the M'Gill High School (which also charges the highest fee for tuition), the charge is $200. The income of the whole 13 in 1864 was $142,000 from all sources; their expenditure of all kinds, $145,790.

At this cost were taught 2,614 pupils, all boys, of whom 1,025 were day scholars, 425 half boarders, 1,164 boarders, 234 were taught gratuitously, 25 were free boarders, 214 were partly boarded free; 2,097 were Catholics, 517 were Protestants; 1,503 were over 16 years of age.

The course varies from six years the shortest period, to 10 years the longest. It is not, however, to be supposed that the majority of the pupils complete the curriculum prescribed. Of about 350 pupils who are enumerated as having left the colleges during the last two years only 113 finished the course; only 123 more got half way. The ratio of "lay" to "religious" teachers is almost the reverse of that which we observed in the case of the academies; *there* we found but 49 "religious" teachers out of a total of 166; *here* there are employed only 39 "lay" teachers out of a total of 195.

They are called "classical colleges," but the study of neither classics nor mathematics seems to penetrate their course very deeply; nor does their "cours d'études" embrace any subject which is not included in the course of the academies, though the ratio of pupils pursuing the higher branches to the whole number may be rather larger. Still, it is a noticeable fact how small a proportion of the pupils advance to the higher subjects in both cases. For the purposes of comparison it may be desirable to give some figures here.

Number of pupils pursuing each branch of study.

The whole number of scholars, as said, was 2,614. Of these 1,698 learnt arithmetic, 556 practised mental calculations, 229 learnt algebra, 271 geometry, 125 trigonometry, 32 conic sections, 12 differential and integral calculus, 83 natural philosophy, 109

* "Je propose de rendre au Collége de St. François à Richmond . . . "la moitié de ce qui avait été retranché de leurs subventions" (*Appendix*, No. 4, p. 2). The special liberality shown to Morin College is probably due to the fact that it could hardly have then got upon its legs, having been founded so recently as 1861. It is, however, an institution well out of debt, which is not true of all its competitors; the debts of nine of the colleges amounting to $167,829.

astronomy (of whom 19 took meteorological observations), 127 chemistry, 127 natural history, 1,352 French grammar, 1,155 English grammar, 1,293 Latin grammar, 717 Greek grammar, 362 Latin, 105 Greek composition, 10 German, 1,642 geography, 761 sacred history, 474 ancient history, 493 English, 192 French, 489 Canadian, 89 United States, 459 general history, 302 Belles lettres, 143 rhetoric, 192 intellectual and moral philosophy, 65 theology, 18 the elements of jurisprudence, 33 theoretic, 81 practical agriculture, 188 gardening, 81 were taking a special commercial course, 258 learnt drawing, 67 studied architecture, 1,015 vocal, 284 instrumental music. One school, evidently taking the line of physical culture, taught 50 of its pupils to swim, 50 to dance, 120 to ride; another taught 55 to fence. Only three appear to have organized regular instruction in gymnastics.

Might be the better for inspection.

Such is the statistical picture of the condition of the "classical colleges," or "high schools" of Lower Canada. One can gather from it what their programme of study is, but that hardly justifies an attempt to measure the success with which it is pursued, or the results which it produces, and, from the period of my visit coinciding with their vacation, I am able to add nothing to it as the fruit of personal examination. They lie outside of the province of inspection, so that no information as to their condition can be gleaned from the Inspector's reports. One phenomenon that strikes me is that, though subsidized out of the Superior Education Fund, these institutions appear to be entirely free from central supervision or control. The returns that they are required annually to make to the Chief Superintendent merely furnish him with certain financial and other statistical statements to be embodied in his report, but are neither evidence nor guarantee of the efficiency of the institutions. As the law allows the Governor in Council to attach to the grants "any conditions which are deemed "advantageous for the furtherance of superior education," I cannot help thinking that the real usefulness of these colleges would be considerably extended, and a wholesome stimulus applied to them, if the annual grant were conditioned by an annual examination, and the payment (as with ourselves) made to depend more or less upon its results.*

Industrial colleges.

There is another class of institutions in Lower Canada, called "industrial colleges," which, though thrown into a distinct table

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Contents of the annual Report.

* The particulars respecting itself which an educational institution applying for aid from the Superior Education Fund is required to report are simply these:—1. The composition of the governing body; 2. The number and names of the professors, teachers, or lecturers; 3. The number of persons taught, distinguishing those under 16 years and those above 16; 4. The general course of instruction and the books used; 5. The annual cost of maintaining the institution and the sources from which its means are derived; 6. The value of the real estate of the institution, if it holds any; 7. A statement of its liabilities; 8. The number of persons taught gratuitously, or taught and boarded gratuitously; 9. The number of books, globes, and maps possessed by the institution, and the value of any museum and philosophical apparatus belonging to it (*Education Acts*, p. 63.)

in the Superintendent's report, I find it impossible to discriminate by any criterion afforded by the report from the colleges denominated "classical." Their constitution is the same, the sources of their income the same, their rates of fees pretty nearly the same their course of study, step by step, the same, the proportion of scholars studying each subject set down in the programme nearly the same, the careers pursued by the various scholars on leaving the same also. The only distinguishing features that I can discern are, that they are more exclusively under Roman Catholic influences, that the proportion of day scholars to boarders is larger, that they are less costly, and that one of them undertakes to educate girls. They are also all of comparatively recent foundation, the oldest having been established in 1846, the youngest in 1856. They are 15 in number, all subsidized out of the Superior Education Fund, educating in 1864, 2,435 scholars, of whom 1,506 were day scholars, 71 were girls, and 197 only were Protestants; under 136 teachers, of whom 109 were "religious," at an annual cost of about $50,000, that is at about $20 to $22 per child. They thus occupy an intermediate position between the academy, which educates at an average cost of $6, and the classical college, where the average cost is $65;* and perhaps this is their special function, to represent and meet the wants and suit the means of an intermediate class of society. Perhaps the following comparative table may throw a little light on the meaning of their title "*industrial* colleges," all that it appears to indicate being that the education given in them is more of a *commercial* character, intended for those who are to be tradesmen and shopkeepers rather than for any other special branch of industry.† If so, though their programme is as wide and comprehensive as that of the classical colleges, no doubt the special strength of the teaching is thrown upon the commercial elements of it. I subjoin the table:

Their intermediate position.

Title of Institution.	Total Number of Pupils.	No. of Pupils learning.					Pupils of last 2 years following.		
		Theory of Agriculture.	Practice of Agriculture.	Gardening.	Chemistry.	Special Commercial Course.	Commerce.	Agriculture.	Other Branch of Industry.
Classical Colleges -	2614	33	81	188	127	81	39	85	72
Industrial Colleges	2435	147	48	90	35	435	177	65	12

* After all this calculation of average cost is worth very little in consequence of the different circumstances of the three institutions. The academies are mainly day schools. Of 6,294 scholars 5885 are day pupils (élèves externes). In the industrial colleges, of 2,435 scholars 1,506 or three-fifths are day pupils. In the classical colleges, of 2,614 scholars only 1,025, not much more than two-fifths, belong to this class.

† In fact, in *our* nomenclature, they would be more properly called "com-
" mercial schools." How little they can do in the way of *industrial* education

It is curious also to notice in what proportions the (so-called) "professions" were recruited from these two sources. In the last two years the two sets of institutions furnished respectively: to the Church, the classical colleges 75, the industrial 33; to the ranks of teachers, 20 and 19; to the bar, 29 and 14; to medicine, 13 and 19; to civil engineering, 1 and 3 respectively. I believe that the substantial difference between the two classes of institutions is that which obtains between a public school of the first class and a public school of the second class amongst ourselves, and that they are really meant to suit the circumstances of different grades in the community which surrounds them. The three grades—the classical college, the industrial college, the academy, would nearly find their counterpart in the triple organization which marks Mr. Woodard's great educational scheme in Sussex.

The school commissioners.

The property and management of the common schools of Lower Canada are vested by law in a corporate body, known by the name of "School Commissioners." They are five in number, elected annually in July by the qualified voters of each municipality, and their term of office is three years.* Clergymen of any denomination ministering in the municipality, whether resident or not, and all other persons resident therein (except a school teacher in the municipality), are eligible without any property qualification.

The first act of the commissioners after their election is to meet and choose one of their own body as chairman, and to appoint a secretary-treasurer.† Upon the honesty, prudence, and business habits of this latter officer the success of the system in the municipality appears mainly to depend.‡ Through his hands pass all moneys appropriated to or levied for the use of the schools; he is required to give adequate security; he receives a salary;§ he keeps

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may be estimated from the fact that only two of the fifteen have museums of natural history of the aggregate value of no more than £47, only six have philosophical apparatus (*cabinets de physique*), one of which is set down as worth no more than £5. One however is worth £1,574. Their course of study varies from three years to eight. The largest has 337 scholars, the smallest 55, the average 150.

* Two of them (to be determined by lot) go out of office at the end of one year, two more at the end of two years, the remaining one at the end of three years. If no election is held the appointment lapses to the Superintendent of Education upon the nomination of certain specified official persons in the municipality. No person is allowed to vote at the election of school commissioners unless he has previously paid up all contributions due by him for school purposes in the municipality under liability to a penalty not exceeding £10.

† Three commissioners constitute a quorum, and at their meetings all questions are decided by a majority of votes. The chairman has only a casting vote.

‡ We have already seen (p. 293, note §) that secretary-treasurers sometimes are only "indifferent honest," and one of the chief services said to have been rendered by the inspectors is that they have succeeded in largely checking defalcations that had become both frequent and extensive. "L'habileté "du sécretaire," "le zèle et l'activité de M. ——, secrétaire-tresorier," are often commended by the inspectors (*Report for* 1864, pp. 73, 59, &c).

§ The amount of this salary (which is to cover all services) may be fixed at the discretion of the commissioners; but it must not exceed "seven per cent.

all the financial accounts of the school, of which he is to submit annually a detailed statement to the commissioners. A fair copy of such statement is to be affixed to the door of the church or principal place of worship in the municipality, and any rate-payer is entitled to a copy on the payment of one dollar for the same.

Their duties. The duties of the school commissioners are: (a) to divide the municipality into school districts of a convenient size wherever this has not already been done, and to take care that a school is established and maintained in each;* (b) to hold all real or personal property belonging to the schools, without the power, however, of alienating any portion of such property except with the express authority of the Superintendent;† (c) to do whatever may be expedient with regard to building, repairing renting, furnishing, and keeping in order the school-houses of the municipality, and to levy money for these purposes whenever they deem it necessary, either on the municipality at large or on the special school district concerned;‡ (d) to appoint and engage teachers,

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" on the moneys received by him as treasurer," nor in any case amount to more than $120 in the year. A case is mentioned in the Report for 1864 to the honour of a particular treasurer, who was working hard to bring the school-accounts of his municipality into a condition of solvency, " qu' il offre de gérer " les affaires pendant une année sans rémunération" (p. 42). A curious case is mentioned in another municipality where "à l'inverse de ce qui se fait " ailleurs, le sécrétaire-trésorier, loin de recevoir un salaire des commissaires, " paye à ces derniers une certaine somme pour avoir le privilége de faire leurs " affaires, lesquelles," (adds the inspector with some not unnatural surprise), " cependant m'ont paru bien tenues" (p. 63).

* A school district must contain at least 20 children between the ages of five and sixteen years. Districts may be united by the Commissioners when they deem it expedient to do so upon giving notice to the Superintendent. The location of schools is a frequent source of difficulty and dissatisfaction. Here is an inspector's account:—" L'impossibilité où l'on est dans les nouveaux " établissements, lorsqu' une population peu considérable est répandue sur une " espace immense, de mettre les écoles à la commodité de tous les contribuables " se fait vivement sentir ici, et a suscité de graves embarras à la corporation " (the Commissioners). De quelque manière qu' on fixe les écoles, il y a " toujours un parti de mécontents qui crient, murmurent, font une cabale " sourde ou ouverte contre l'école, ou plus souvent encore contre l'instituteur " ou l'institutrice. On retire les enfants de l'école. Si l'on déplace l'école pour " satisfaire ce parti, de suite le parti content devient mécontent et fait ce " qu'il blâmait chez les autres. Combien d'écoles ne produisent aucun bien " par suite de ces malheureuses et inévitables divisions; et comment y remédier?" (*Report for* 1864, p. 28.) A rate supported system has its own difficulties. There is a power of appeal, however, to the Chief Superintendent.

† There is a clause in the law with the object of preventing real property being held in mortmain, but which I take to be a dead letter, declaring that " the Commissioners of the cities and municipalities of Quebec and Montreal " shall not at any time hold real property to the yearly value of more than " $2,000, nor those of other municipalities hold real property to the yearly " value of more than $1,200" (*Education and Schools Acts*, p. 75). The yearly value of the school-houses must often exceed this.

‡ A large equitable jurisdiction is left in the hands both of the School Commissioners and the Superintendent. The former may decide, "from their " knowledge of the circumstances of the case," whether it would be fairer that such assessment should be levied on the municipality generally, or on the inhabitants of the school district specially. The Superintendent, upon appeal, may either set aside or confirm the assessment, " as to him appears most

and to remove them when necessary on account of incapacity, insubordination, or misconduct;* to regulate the course of study to be followed in each school, to provide the text-books sanctioned by the Council of Public Instruction,† to establish general rules of management, to fix the time of the annual public examination and to attend the same, and to name two or more from among themselves to visit each public school in the municipality at least once in six months, and to report to the corporation of which they are members its condition both as regards instruction and discipline.

Their powers.

The only effective control exercised over the powers of the school commissioners lies in the force of public opinion, and in some cases, probably indeed in all, in the right of appeal from them to the Chief Superintendent. Of course, in many particulars their

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" equitable under the circumstances " (*Education Acts*, p. 80). There is a limit to the Commissioners' power of levying a rate as regards its amount. For a model school-house it must not exceed $1,000; for a common school-house it must not exceed $500. These limits, however, M. Chauveau told me, were not understood to apply to cities, and he considered their abrogation desirable.

* Many commissioners appear to be quite incompetent to discharge this duty properly. It is true the law makes the preliminary requirement that the teacher should be " duly qualified," that is, " muni de diplôme." It might be as well that the Superintendent, on the report of the Inspector, should have the power to require the dismissal of manifestly incompetent teachers. The introduction, too, of our system of " payment for results " would operate beneficially in the same direction. It is stated in the Superintendent's Report for 1864 that there is at present in Lower Canada " un si grand nombre d'institu- " teurs et d'institutrices munis de diplômes que toutes les localités, même les " plus pauvres et les plus éloignées, peuvent s'en procurer " (p. xii). If so, either the supply cannot be well distributed, or the Commissioners are slow to avail themselves of it. " Malheureusement," says an inspector, " aux yeux " des commissaires, il n'y a guère de degrés de capacité entre les instituteurs, " et l'on croit avoir fait une bonne transaction quand on a obtenu les services " d'une personne quelconque à un prix relativement réduit " (*Ibid.* p. 53). The same habit of under-bidding on the part of the less qualified teachers prevails in Lower as in Upper Canada. " C'est par la concurrence que font aux " instituteurs habiles des instituteurs ou des institutrices peu capables, quoique " munis de diplômes, que les traitements des instituteurs restent stationnaires " et même dans beaucoup d'endroits vont en diminuant " (*Ibid.* p. xii). It would seem from this last extract that the possession of a diploma or certificate is not in all cases a guarantee of capacity, and the Boards of Examiners are charged to exercise " une plus grande severité " in the interest both of the schools and of the teaching-body, who are suffering from this competition (*Ibid.*)

† The law allows an important privilege to the clergy, of which, however, I was informed by M. Chauveau, advantage is rarely taken. " The curé, priest, " or officiating minister, shall have the exclusive right of selecting the books " having reference to religion and morals for the use of the schools for children " of his own religious faith." It is as well, perhaps, that the privilege is not claimed; for as the power given to the clergy is only that of selecting the books —not of instructing the children out of them, this duty remaining apparently with the teacher—an element of complete dislocation is introduced without any corresponding advantage.

The time set apart for giving religious instruction is left to the discretion of the School Commissioners. I observe no " conscience clause " in the Lower Canada School Law, as there is in that of Upper Canada; but, as will be seen presently, an unlimited facility is given for the establishment of " dissentient schools."

powers are controlled by the limitations of the law, but, except in the single matter of their election, they are not shackled by any necessity to appeal to the suffrages of the people. They fix the rate of the monthly scoool fee at their discretion, provided only that it do not exceed 40 cents, nor be less than five cents. They levy by assessment and rate in each municipality a sum equal to that appropriated to the municipality out of the Common School Fund, together with any additional sum which they may think it necessary to raise for the purpose of the schools under their control, together with a further additional sum, not exceeding 30 per cent. upon the total sum to be so raised, which may be required to meet any contingent or unforeseen expenditure. They may in their discretion receive the amount of such rates and of the monthly school fees, either in money or in produce, at prices to be fixed by them.* If the Municipal Council refuse to collect their assessment (as sometimes happens) with the other local taxes, they can collect it themselves.

Dissentient schools.

The liberty allowed to dissentients to establish separate schools under the common school system is far greater in Lower than in Upper Canada. In the latter section of the province Protestants can only establish a separate school when the teacher of the common school is a Roman Catholic, and upon written application to the municipal council of twelve or more heads of families resident in the municipality. Roman Catholics, only after the convention of a meeting by any five or more Roman Catholic heads of families, being freeholders or householders and resident within the school section.

In Lower Canada, whenever in any municipality the regulations and arrangements made by the commissioners of any school are not agreeable *to any number whatever* of the inhabitants professing a religious faith different from that of the majority of the

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* It is, however, optional with the inhabitants of a municipality that has been assessed for school purposes, to substitute a voluntary contribution at least equal to the amount of public moneys granted to the municipality out of the school fund, for a rate (*School Laws*, p. 88 s. 87). The objections to a rate are still strongly felt in some localities; and though the Commissioners appear to have legal power to levy one, they probably are obliged, practically, to yield to the stream. I can only account for such a statement as the following, upon this hypothesis. "Dans les municipalités où la taxe regulière n'est pas établie, "les commissaires n'ont aucune force, et tout dépend de la générosité des "habitants. L'opposition que l'on fait à l'établissement du système des taxes "disparâit de jour en jour, et bientôt elle sera réduite à néant. Dans mon dis- "trict d'inspection, une opposition énergique à ce système existe, et néammoins "un bon nombre d'habitants sont favorables à la mesure" (*Report for* 1864, p. 43).

The assessment must be laid equally according to valuation upon all rateable real property in the municipality. The rate must be fixed and laid between 1st of May and 1st of July, and is payable on demand, thirty days' notice having been given, at any time in the year.

The Superintendent, who, I have said, is more or less of an autocrat, may cause, of his own authority, special assessments to be levied in any school municipality for the payment of its lawful debts. It is his duty also, when a municipality is divided or reconstructed, to apportion any existing debts equitably among the new municipalities (*School Laws*, p. 88).

inhabitants of such municipality, the inhabitants so dissentient may collectively signify, in writing, such dissent to the chairman of the commissioners, and give in the names of three trustees chosen by them (for three years, one retiring each year), which trustees shall have all the powers and be subject to all the duties of school commissioners, for the purpose of establishing and managing dissentient schools. They become a corporation, may constitute their own school districts, have the sole right of fixing and collecting the assessments to be levied on the dissentient inhabitants, are entitled to receive out of the General School Fund appropriated to the municipality a share bearing the same proportion to the whole sum allotted that the number of children attending such dissentient schools bears to the entire number of children attending school at the same time in the municipality,* and a similar share of the building fund.

Dissentient trustees.

The entire amount of money raised by assessment for school purposes on dissentients is to be paid to the trustees of the dissentient school: and any school-house which they occupied on 9th June, 1846, the date of the Act of the ninth of Victoria, which legalized their position, though built at the general expense of the municipality, shall continue to be occupied by them as long as the number of children taught in the school amounts to the number required to form a school district, *i.e.* to 20. But children from other districts, of the same faith as the dissentients, may attend the school whenever such dissentients are not sufficiently numerous in any district to support a school alone.

Their rights to assessment and school-houses.

It is provided that individuals of the dissentient minority shall not be elected or serve as school commissioners nor vote at their election, and in like manner individuals of the majority shall not be elected or serve as school trustees, nor vote at their election.

Reciprocal exclusion.

The power possessed by dissentient trustees for assessing, levying, and collecting assessments for the purpose of their schools, and the entire position occupied by them towards such schools are precisely the same as the power possessed and the position occupied by the commissioners in relation to the common schools. They become two co-ordinate systems working one would think, not without frequent inevitable collisions, in the same municipality.

Their powers identical with with those of commissioners.

In 1864 there was a total number of 182 dissentient schools, as against 128 separate schools in Upper Canada. Of these 48 were Catholic, attended by 1830 children; 134 were Protestant, attended by 4625.

It is easy to see by a comparison of these figures with the statistics of the Upper Canadian separate schools that the Protestant population is much less anxious to break off from the common school system than is the Roman Catholic population; or perhaps it would be truer to say than are the Roman Catholic

Protestants less anxious for separate schools than Roman Catholics.

* These are the terms of 12 Vict. c. 50. s. 18. On the previous page the proportion is stated differently: "They shall be entitled to receive out of the "general or local school fund *a sum proportionate to the dissentient population* "*they represent.*" The date of this provision is 9 Vict. c. 27. s. 26 (*School Acts* p. 76–77). No attempt, that I can see, is made to reconcile the difference; but I take the latter enactment as determining the present practice.

clergy. The 120 separate schools of Upper Canada, which are exclusively Catholic, were educating in 1863, nearly 16,000 children ;* the 182 dissentient schools of Lower Canada, of which about one-fourth were Catholic and three-fourths Protestant, educated in 1864 considerably less than half that number. The average attendance at each Upper Canadian school was 135; at the Lower Canada schools only 35.

Condition of dissentient schools.

The reports of the Inspectors do not signalize any very noticeable phenomena in relation to these dissentient schools. Their condition fluctuates pretty much from the same causes and pretty nearly to the same extent as the condition of the common schools. Sometimes the inferior state in which they are found is attributed to the poverty of their supporters.† Sometimes a conciliating inspector has endeavoured to bind up the wounds between Catholics and Protestants in a parish, but presently they break out again.‡

Present arrangements not satisfactory to Protestants.

Whatever, however, be the results, such is the legal protection given to "the rights of conscience" in Lower Canada. It does not seem to be entirely satisfactory to the Protestant population. An association has been formed, or has been suggested in Montreal "for the promotion and protection of the educational interests of "Protestants in Lower Canada," whose proceedings have called forth a vindication of the system, as it is, from the pen of M. Chauveau himself.§ Principal Dawson of McGill University published about the same date (1864) an able pamphlet on "some "points in the history and prospects of Protestant education in "Lower Canada." The occasion of the rise of controversy was the prospect of federation, which, as one feature of the original scheme left education to be disposed of in each province by the local legislatures, and so threatened to deprive the Protestants of Lower Canada of the strength at present arising from their union with the Protestant majority in the upper province, was thought to endanger the permanence of the Protestant element in the constitution of the schools.

Mr. Dawson's demands.

Principal Dawson contends that, owing to the different circumstances of the two bodies, what is a sufficient protection to the minority of Upper Canada is not a sufficient protection to the minority of Lower Canada.‖ He demands, therefore, for the Pro-

* See above p. 258.

† En ce qui concerne les écoles dissidentes je dois faire observer que presque tous ceux qui les soutiennent sont très pauvres—ce qui explique en partie leur peu de succès" (*Report for* 1864. p. 122).

‡ Lors de la division de ce township par acte du parlement passé l'année dernière, j'ai engagé les dissidents protestants à se réunir à la majorité catholique, ce qu'ils ont fait; mais à la suite de differends qui sont survenus, ils se sont séparés de nouveau (*Ibid*, p. 112).

§ The title of the pamphlet is, "A few remarks on the meeting held at Mon-"treal for the formation of an association for the promotion and protection," &c. It is reprinted from the Lower Canada Journal of Education.

No real parallel between the religious minorities of the two provinces.

‖ "A parallel is supposed to exist between the rights and interests of the "Protestant minority in Lower Canada, and the Roman Catholic minority in "Upper Canada. It is supposed that what is good and sufficient for one of "these minorities must necessarily be good and sufficient for the other. In "reality, the agreement between the circumstances of the two is limited to "these points: 1st, That both are minorities almost equally important as to

testant minority, such modifications of the existing law* as shall make them more independent, in the management of their schools, of the Catholic majority.

" numbers; and 2nd, That both are entitled to have their rights of conscience " respected. But as to the way in which these rights are to be secured in the " two cases, no parity can exist. The minority in Lower Canada contend for " public non-denominational schools, the minority in Upper Canada for sepa- " rate schools. The majority in Lower Canada support a closely denomina- " tional and ecclesiastical system, the majority in Upper Canada support a " public and non-sectarian system. The minority in Lower Canada exist in " the presence of a system supported by a powerful and highly organized State " Church, and strengthened by differences of race, customs, and language, as " well as of religion; the minority of Upper Canada are in presence of a system " which professes to give them the benefits of secular instruction, without " interfering in any way with their religion or language. The minority in " Lower Canada are wealthy, and liable to have their taxes largely applied to " schools which they disapprove; the minority in Upper Canada are in little " danger in this respect, and at the most their taxes can be applied only to the " teaching of subjects which in a religious point of view are neutral and indif- " ferent. In short, the majority of Upper Canada and the minority in Lower " Canada agree in the principle of public schools for the better communication " of elementary instruction, the majority in Lower Canada and the minority " in Upper Canada agree in the principle of separate schools: and thus while " politically the cases of the two minorities may be somewhat similar, educa- " tionally they are totally different" (*Pamphlet* p. 9–10).

Protestant demands.

* The provisions demanded as necessary for the protection of Protestant education in Lower Canada, are as follow:

(*a*) That there shall be a separate Protestant Superintendent and Council of Public Instruction, the latter to represent, as fairly as may be, the leading Protestant denominations.

(*b*) More perfect protection of the rights of the minority in the disposal of their school taxes. The principle should be recognised that the school taxes of Protestant ratepayers should not, except by their express desire, be devoted to the support of Roman Catholic schools; and the taxes levied on commercial corporations should be divided in some equitable manner, so as not to interfere with the interests of Protestant shareholders. The tax might be divided according to population, or, better still, according to the stock held by shareholders of the respective creeds. [I can only understand this demand to refer to the case of Protestant ratepayers residing where there is no dissentient school; because, where this exists, the entire amount of money raised by assessment on dissentients is to be paid to the trustees of such school, and such trustees alone have the right of fixing and collecting the assessments to be levied on dissentient inhabitants. As to the terms on which a dissentient school is entitled to share in the general and local school fund, see above p. 309.]

(*c*) A removal of " the manifest injustice in the dependence of the Protestant " school districts on the boundaries which may be fixed for parishes and muni- " cipalities. There seems no good reason why the districts of dissentient schools " should not be established without any reference to these boundaries, and to " suit the convenience of contributors to these schools, a privilege that has been " already granted to the separate schools of Upper Canada." [It appears to be " admitted that, though " children from other school districts,"—I presume " within the same municipality,—" of the same faith as the dissentients for whom " the school was established, may attend the same whenever such dissentients " are not sufficiently numerous in any district to support a school alone yet " small scattered bodies of the minority, Catholic as well as Protestant, living " on the borders of different municipalities, cannot combine to have a school in " common." Dissentient school districts are also liable to be broken up by a division of old municipalities into new by Act of Parliament (*M. Chauveau's Pamphlet*, p. 6.) See a case above *p.* 310, *note* ‡.]

(*d*) The recognition of a rule that all provincial aid granted to education by Parliament should be distributed between the Protestant and Roman Catholic

Religious and moral instruction.

There can be no doubt that in the purely Catholic schools of Lower Canada, the religious and moral instruction of the pupils is carefully attended to. A large proportion of the teachers are members of religious orders, and the skill and success with which the Christian Brothers discharge their duty in these respects is well known. I presume also, that religious instruction, though probably of a less dogmatic and definite character, is given in the Protestant dissentient schools. The law, as we have seen, gives to the curé, priest, or officiating minister, the exclusive right of selecting the books having reference to religion and morals, for the children of his own religious faith in the schools.

The religious difficulty.

What is called "the religious difficulty" only emerges where the population is divided between Catholics and Protestants, and where the children in the school are mixed in a similar way. In such cases, as we have found almost everywhere else, religious instruction goes to the wall. The susceptibilities both of parents and of sects on the point are so keen, that, to avoid offences, that branch of the teaching is abandoned altogether.* The cases, however,

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Departments according to the population they respectively represent. [I have already noticed a confusion which seems to exist in the law on this point; but this principle of distribution was recognised once, though, apparently, subsequently altered. *See above, p.* 309, note *.]

(*e*) A guarantee securing the permanence of all the higher Protestant educational institutions, which cannot be supported altogether by local rates or public grants, to the Protestant population. They should be permanently endowed either as originally contemplated by the British government in 1818, by grants of public land, or special funds set apart for them, and not be dependent on the fluctuating resource of annual grants, in the same way as endowments are enjoyed by the Seminary of Montreal and that of Quebec, with its extension in the Laval University.

These, Mr. Dawson conceives, are "the most important points which demand "the attention of Protestant educationists in Lower Canada in prospect of the "new constitution," the concession of which, "while not injurious to those "who differ from them on educational questions, will secure and perpetuate "the existence of English and Protestant education in Lower Canada" (*Mr. Dawson's Pamphlet*, pp. 13–19). M. Chauveau, on his side, while declaring himself not "opposed to any change in the law that would provide increased "facilities for dissentients," and in particular being willing to allow the "division of the tax levied on incorporated companies between the commis- "sioners and dissentient trustees, where dissentient schools are established, in "the same proportion as the government grant," maintains that the law is administered with entire impartiality, and that the grievances, such as they are, press as hardly on Dissentient Catholics as on Dissentient Protestants. (*See his Pamphlet*, pp. 6–7.)

* On s'occupe très peu (says one Inspector), de l'éducation disciplinaire et religieuse des enfants. Il m'est arrivé plusieurs fois de me faire insulter sur le chemin par des enfants sortant de l'école. Evidemment une telle conduite ne peut être attribuée qu' à l'ignorance et au défaut d'éducation des mâitres et des mâitresses d'école; car j'ai pu constater que les parents de ces enfants sont généralement polis et hospitaliers. Pour ce qui regarde l'instruction religieuse, à l'exception des écoles où tous les enfants sont catholiques, cette partie de l'éducation est absolument mise de côté. Les instituteurs donnent pour raison qu'ils ne pourraient agir autrement dans leurs écoles mixtes, sans blesser les susceptibilités ou des catholiques ou des protestants (*Report for* 1864, p. 113). We have heard complaints of "boorishness" in Upper Canada. *See above* p. 233, note †.

where this would occur, would not be very numerous, owing to the fact that the vast majority—four-fifths—of the population are of one way of thinking in matters of religion, and where dissentients exist, facilities are afforded them for establishing separate schools. But the fact remains, that mixed schools, with religious instruction occupying a definite place in their programme, are a phenomenon hardly to be met with on the American continent. No compromise, and no comprehension, have yet been discovered sufficiently skilful to appease, or sufficiently tolerant to embrace, the mutual jealousies of Christian communities. It was so in the United States: it was so, though less prominently, in Upper Canada; it is so, though in still smaller proportions, here. It looks almost like a law of human nature that it shall be so everywhere.

Inspection of schools.

When I have said a few words about the plan of inspection adopted in Lower Canada, I shall have done, I think, all that is necessary to convey to an English reader a distinct conception of the more prominent features of the system of education which prevails there. I cannot help believing that the Lower Canadian theory of the position of an inspector, in relation to the schools which he visits, is sounder than any other idea of the nature of his office which exists, so far as I observed, on the other side of the Atlantic. It is indeed founded on French ideas; or it may be said even more correctly, upon our own.* The Inspector is the officer and representative of the educational department of the government. He is independent of local influences. His salary is paid out of a general fund. He reports to the Superintendent. His reports are published. He visits the schools of his district, armed with all the Superintendent's power. His duty is to visit each school municipality in the district for which he is appointed;† to examine the schools, teachers, and school-houses therein; to inspect the accounts of the secretary-treasurer, and the register of the commissioners or trustees; and generally to ascertain whether the school laws are carried out and obeyed. Every three months he must send a report of his proceedings to the Superintendent; every third year his report, dealing in detail with the educational condition of his district, is given to the world.

Powers and duties of inspectors.

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* See *Report of the Superintendent of Education for Lower Canada in relation to the inspectors of schools, January* 1863. After quoting the examples of France and Belgium, and the words of MM. Guizot and Rogier, M. Chauveau adds: "In England, the inspectors refrain from interfering in any way with "the discipline and management of the schools"—this however is something of an over-statement—"and yet their influence over them is considerable; "more so over the general interests of education, I can boldly affirm, than in "France itself, where they exercise a direct jurisdiction over personal action. "This is explained by a single word: the judgments of the inspectors are in "England made public." (p. 7.) If M. Chauveau will study the Revised Code he will find other and even more potent ways by which an inspector can give effect to his recommendations than by the mere publication of his report. The publication of the "tabulated reports" of the condition of each school has been discontinued—a piece of economy, as I think, to be regretted.

† The law does not specify how often the visit is to be paid. But M. Chauveau in his *Report*, p. 12, thinks "it is of the utmost advantage to have the schools "visited twice a year."

Their appointment and salary.

The inspectors are appointed by the governor, *durante bene placito*, "for such period as he deems necessary," one or more for each civil district into which the province is divided. Their salary is determined by the Governor, on the principle of "adequate remuneration for duties performed;" but is limited by law to a maximum of $1200 a year. The Superior Education Fund is chargeable with the payment of these salaries. Each inspector is *ex officio* a Justice of the Peace of the district for which he is appointed.

Inspectors not denominational.

There is one feature in the Lower Canadian plan which differs from our own. Inspection in Lower Canada is not denominational. The same inspector visits all the schools in his district, whether common or dissentient, attended by Catholic children or Protestant. This, and another fact, which would certainly be more of a hardship, viz, that "Protestant schools are examined by "Roman Catholic inspectors *who do not understand the English* "*language*," have been made a grievance by the Protestant Association, though M. Chauveau says, in his reply, that the suspicions of unfairness and charges of injustice are alike without foundation.*

Opposition to the system.

But with all the manifest advantages of such a system of inspection, there are not an inconsiderable number of people in Lower Canada who are slow to appreciate them. The abolition of the office has been proposed in Parliament, and the Government have had under their consideration various plans of modifying the system, either by reducing the number of inspection districts, or by transferring both the appointment and payment of inspectors to the municipal councils—a step that would be at once fatal to the independence which is the secret of their efficiency.† And at this

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* "The first division of districts was made to secure to all large sections of the Protestant community the advantage of having inspectors of their own faith, and everything that has been done since was with a view of extending that principle as far as possible. But for every one who knows something of Lower Canada, it is easy to see that with a mixed population like ours, and with Protestant schools scattered at great distances from each other in Catholic districts, and *vice versa*, it is almost impossible that the schools belonging to one religious section of the community should not sometimes be visited by inspectors of a different religious persuasion." (*A few Remarks, &c.*, p. 9.) He adds that Catholics have as good grounds of complaint on this score as Protestants. Of the 27 inspectors, six are Protestants; and in their districts, containing a population of 200,000, there are 70,000 Catholics to 130,000 Protestants.

It appears to me, however, that having to deal with such "a mixed population," in respect of language as well as of religion, every inspector should be required to be δίγλωσσος (*Thuc.* viii. 85), and able to examine a school in English as well as in French.

† "*A few Remarks, &c.*" p. 11. The motives of the opposition are classed by M. Chauveau under four heads: 1. Many of the opponents of the present system are equally adverse to any system of inspection, not perceiving the utility of it. 2. Many others think that the sums absorbed by the Inspectors would be more profitably applied to the maintenance of the schools themselves, and would serve to lessen by so much the school tax in each locality. 3. The Inspectors, like all other public functionaries, create enemies either by their fault, or even by their extreme zeal and impartiality. 4. Some of the Inspectors do not make their visits as useful as they might, either because their districts are too extensive, or *because having other occupations*, they fulfil their duties negligently and carelessly. (*Report on Inspection*, p. 5.)

very moment, so uncertain appears to be the temper of public opinion on the subject that three inspectorships which have become vacant, have not been filled up, pending the possibility of amendments of the system being introduced.

System admitted to be imperfect.

It is indeed admitted by M. Chauveau that, though the system of inspection is perhaps the best that could be devised for the circumstances of Lower Canada where the departmental principle has more force than the municipal, and the idea of 'local self-government' is not so inborn in the minds of the people as it is elsewhere, yet in many cases the inspectors themselves have been wanting either in zeal or competency. Two have been dismissed on this ground; and it is stated to be the determination of the government that "persons who have voluntarily assumed so "important a task, shall acquit themselves of it in a suitable "manner." In a report in 1857, the Superintendent recommended that, other things being equal, teachers should be preferred to all other candidates for the office; and since that date, all the inspectors appointed, with the exception of two, have belonged to that class of the community.*

Suggestions for its improvement.

Admitting then to some extent the inefficiency of the present system, and tracing its imperfections to the facts, "that some "districts are still too extensive for the duties devolving on the "inspectors, and for the remuneration assigned to them, and also "because some of them have other occupations which lead them "to neglect the performance of their duties," the Superintendent makes six suggestions which he thinks would remedy all the evils complained of:

First. To subdivide three or four of the larger districts.

Second. To continue to appoint none but teachers to the office of inspector.

The Superintendent has sufficient answers to each objection. To the first, he quotes the testimony of all nations that have efficient school systems, France, Belgium, Austria, Italy, Greece, England, to prove the acknowledged value of inspection. To the second, he replies that the abolition or reduction of the Inspector's salary (which comes out of the Superior Education Fund) would neither lead to an increase of the local aid nor to a diminution of the school rate; while the Inspectors, by their supervision of the school accounts, have detected defalcations on the part of secretary-treasurers, and put a stop to them for the future, of more than the aggregate amount of their salaries. The third and fourth objections, upon investigation, have generally been found to arise from "malicious feelings," or else to be grounded upon the personal qualities of an individual inspector, and ought not to be elevated into charges against the system.

* "Within the space of four years, no less than nine teachers have been "appointed to the office of inspector, one of them being subsequently called to "fill an office in the department. As there were already among the inspectors "five former teachers, the number of those who have had experience in impart-"ing instruction now amounts to 13 out of 27." (*Report on Inspection*, p. 4). Remembering the delicate and responsible duties that inspectors frequently have to discharge (see above p. 294, note), I am not quite sure that "experience "in imparting instruction" is the highest qualification for an inspector. The office emphatically requires the tact of a man of business and the instincts of a gentleman.

Third. To make a regulation providing minutely for the execution of the duties of inspectors, prescribing the lengths of their visits and the manner of conducting them, requiring them to be present at teachers' conferences and to visit the normal schools, in order to keep up with the progress of education and propagate the spirit of improvement.

Fourth. To compel the commissioners and trustees by legal enactment, under a penalty, to attend when the inspector visits their school, and to sign his report.

Fifth. To exact from inspectors the employment of their whole time in the exercise of their functions.

Sixth. To furnish each school corporation with printed registers, to serve as journals in which the inspector should enter the report of his visit.*

Present arrangements.

The present staff of inspectors consists of 27. The number of schools under control is about 3,000; adding to which the independent schools which they are instructed to visit when invited to do so, we have a total number of 3,200 schools to be visited in the year. The inspector's year is reckoned at 180 days; and M. Chauvean calculates that, under the present arrangement, "the inspectors have, on an average and in round numbers, four "of them four, others three, and some two schools to visit in one "day."† The salaries of these gentlemen vary from $125 the lowest, to $1,000 the highest; the total amount paid in salaries being $19,050. M. Chauveau thinks, though he does not prefer the plan, that the number of inspectors might be reduced to ten, with a proportionate enlargement of their districts and a corresponding diminution of the number of their visits to each school; a plan, which, while it would allow of a considerable increase to the salary of the individuals, would effect a saving in the aggregate of about $2,600 a year. It may be interesting for the purposes of comparison with the work of inspectors at home, to examine the two subjoined tables, of which A exhibits things as they are; B things as it is suggested they might be. The comparative facilities of locomotion in England and Canada must be considered at the same time; and it must be remembered that perhaps the area of the district is a surer test of the quantity of an inspector's work than the amount of its population. The same population, accord-

New plan suggested.

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* Such registers, corresponding with our "log-book," are required to be provided by the commissioners for the teachers; but the requirement is frequently not attended to. "Le grand nombre des instituteurs," says an inspector, "de mon district tiennent leur journal sur des feuilles volantes, de "sorte qu'il me faut presqu' autant de temps pour examiner leur journal qu'il "m'en faut pour examiner les enfants. Pour obvier à cet inconvenient, il "serait à propos . . que le Bureau de l'Education fût autorisé à faire imprimer "des journaux à l'usage des écoles, et obligeât les commissaires à pourvoir "chaque école d'un tel journal" (*Report* for 1864, p. 113.)

† This calculation, of course, is based upon the hypothesis that each school is visited *twice* a year.

ing as it is dense or sparse, would consume very different quantities of time.

TABLE A.

Names of 27 Inspectors.	Extent of District in Acres.	Population in 1861.	Number of Schools under Control.	Number of Scholars.	Amount of Salary.
Mr. Panchaud - -	- - -	2,651	5	271	$125
„ Meagher - -	241,340	13,092	30	2,662	700
„ Tremblay - -		11,426	21	905	600
„ Martin - -	69,669	10,478	26	1,116	500
„ Tanguay - -	584,092	60,473	181	7,961	875
„ Boivin - -	209,007	21,324	45	1,935	500
„ Hume - -	214,121	26,332	83	3,340	750
„ Juneau - -	685,437	34,442	99	6,837	700
„ Béland - -		35,935	106	6,690	700
„ Crépault - -	386,134	41,748	138	6,534	750
„ Bardy - - -	544,571	100,498	180	11,986	1,000
„ Plees - - -	- - -	10,931	16	1,205	250
„ Hubert - -	443,909	51,956	122	7,000	750
„ Bourgeois - -	175,000	22,581	71	2,998	700
„ Maurault - -	333,482	37,608	112	6,075	750
„ Hubbard - -	484,143	47,033	284	9,868	800
„ Parmelee - -	380,704	49,813	246	8,107	875
„ Archambault -	931,219	47,687	112	7,558	800
„ Leroux -		55 945	172	10,547	800
„ Caron - - -	470,523	45,563	131	7,924	700
„ Grondin - -		44,638	114	7,856	700
„ Bruce - - -	331,139	58,231	150	8,303	1,000
„ Valade - -	424,175	117,068	150	8,644	1,000
„ Dorval - -	630,008	72,885	193	10,432	875
„ Germain - -	393,584	49,398	133	7,476	750
„ Rouleau - -	826,227	27,148	45	1,796	550
„ Hamilton - -		13,866	39	1,692	550
		Totals.	3,004	157,748	$19,050

I am not aware, nor do I believe in the computation of salaries, that anything extra is allowed for travelling expenses.

TABLE B.

Districts of Inspection and Names of Judicial Districts contained in each.	Population of each District.	No. of Schools under Control.	No. of Scholars in each District.	Proposed Salary of Inspector.
1. Gaspè and Rimouski - -	41,465	88	4,702	$1,400
2. Saguenay and Chicoutini - -	31,820	71	3,051	1,400
3. Kamouraska, Montmagny, Quebec and Beauce - - -	257,668	652	37,947	1,800
4. Arthabaska, Three Rivers, Richelieu - - - - -	162,646	439	23,486	1,600
5. St. Francois and Bedford - -	58,174	294	9,975	1,600
6. St. Hyacinthe and Iberville -	123,223	539	26,571	1,800
7. Montreal, Joliette, Beauharnais, &c. - - - - - -	263,762	495	29,282	1,800
8. Terrebonne and Ottawa - -	69,805	169	8,341	1,400
9. Protestant Schools of Quebec, &c. - - - - - -	22,008	61	3,559	1,800
10. Protestant Schools of Montreal, &c. - - - - - -	58,849	196	10,834	1,800
Totals		3,004	157,748	$16,400

I think I may now take my leave of the educational system of Lower Canada. And having travelled over the whole of the ground assigned to me, I may perhaps be allowed to conclude this Report with a few—and they shall be very few and brief—general reflections.

Features in the English system which might be adopted in America.

In an account which I was asked to give to the Ohio School Teachers' Association, at their meeting in Cincinnati in last July, of the "school system of England," and which they did me the honour to print in their monthly educational journal of September, I closed my description in the following words:

"There may be points in this system which you may think might be advantageously grafted on your own. In particular, it seems to me, that the pupil-teacher element (which ensures us a supply of qualified teachers), and the method of inspection (which, combined with the principle of payment for results, guarantees the proper application of the Government's aid), which are its two corner-stones, are of universal applicability, and might be introduced almost anywhere, without disturbing a stone that was laid before."

The subsequent extension of my view and enlargement of my experience in Canada has not led me to wish to alter one of these words. The Lower Canadians possess, substantially, our system of inspection; and it appears to me to be the one element of cohesion in their very loosely constructed educational fabric. An efficient superintendence of schools is the one thing felt to be wanted, and strongly urged to be supplied, in Massachusetts. Complaining as they almost universally do of the difficulty of procuring properly trained teachers, and imperfect, by reason of its briefness, as in their present normal system, the Americans, if they will examine, may learn to appreciate the value of our pupil teachers, unless they are frightened, as we ourselves have been, by their cost. If they will condescend to study the details of our Revised Code, which after much evil report seems to be surely winning its way to general acceptance, they will perhaps admit that to pay for results actually achieved in a school is a more stimulating application of the State's money, than to pay according to population or according to average attendance.

American public spirit might be imitated by ourselves.

What we can borrow from America, remembering the difference of our social circumstances and the different principles that animate both our ecclesiastical and civil polity, I can hardly say. *The* thing, however, which I should like to borrow, and which we certainly might borrow without revolutionizing our institutions, is the noble public spirit, almost universally prevalent, which considers that to contribute to the general education of the people is the first duty, as of the commonwealth at large, so of every citizen in particular; and which places religion, morality, and intelligence in the forefront of the elements that constitute the strength, and guarantee the prosperity of a nation.

I do not think we want a better system in England; but we do sadly want for that system a wider diffusion of hearty sympathy and generous support. With our immense wealth, and our professed liberality, there ought not to be so many schools amongst

us as confessedly there are, of which those who manage and control them, should simply be ashamed.

A system of gradation would increase the efficiency of our elementary schools,

There can be no doubt that if we could introduce the graded system into our elementary town and city schools,—it would, I think, be impracticable in country districts; even the Americans cannot get it to work successfully there—and a mode of central inspection or visitation analogous to that exercised by the New York Board of Regents of the University into our middle and upper schools, dividing the country for the purpose into certain defined and manageable areas, we should be introducing into the former class of schools a principle of union which would be a principle of strength; and into the latter class a flood of new light and a wholesome regard for public opinion, which appear to be much needed, in some cases, to bring them into harmony with the spirit of the time.

But, of course, there are two formidable, and I fear insurmountable obstacles to the adoption of either plan. To the first is opposed the constitution of our parochial system, so closely interwoven with our system of elementary schools, and all the narrow, local notions that have sprung from it. Admirably as the parochial system of England is adapted to the wants of rural districts, both in a spiritual and an educational aspect, securing both for churches and schools, ministrations which no other system that I have ever seen devised would afford so effectually, yet it has always seemed to me a far less efficient instrument for dealing with masses aggregated as our people are aggregated in our metropolitan, manufacturing and commercial towns. There I think we need more consolidation, and less of independent action. The old Primitive Church idea of a bishop in each city, the whole of which was his παροικία, with a body of subordinate clergy working under his direction—*that*, and not a territorial circumscription being the limit of their powers,—is, as it seems to me, an organization that would suit our circumstances better than what we have. As we are, it is hopeless even to suggest the plan of graded schools. And yet the gradation of schools is just the strength of the American system. It secures uniformity of method; it economises teaching power; it produces wholesome competition; it lives in the light of day. If I have succeeded in the previous pages in making myself understood, any one with experience in educational matters will at once see that it is the one thing which our elementary schools have not, and which they most need. I do not care so much about *common* schools, except so far as that the school-doors should be open to every child who chose to enter them; I have no particular preference for *free* schools, because I have never met with a case in which a moderate fee operated as an exclusion from school: but I do see most clearly the advantages of a *graded* school. If as perfect a system of gradation as any in America has been found practicable in New York with its 800,000 inhabitants, there is no reason why a similar organization —apart from prejudice and vested rights—should not work successfully in Birmingham or Manchester, with not more than half that population, or even in our gigantic metropolis with its three

millions. I have signalized, it is true, not a few defects, some of them considerable defects, in the New York schools; but those are not defects in the system, but arise from certain vicious ideas upon what constitutes education in the heads of its administrators—ideas which judicious Superintendents like Mr. Randall are endeavouring with as little fuss as possible to clear away: and at Boston where the system is the same and where people seem to have taken a truer measure of the possibilities of a school, there is much less room for unfavourable criticism.

and a system of regular inspection and annual reports would do much for our upper and middle schools.

To the second suggestion due to my observation of American phenomena, of a central board exercising more or less of actual visitatorial power over the middle and upper schools within a given area—say a county, or one of those "districts" into which England is already divided by the Registrar-General for statistical purposes—arise, at once, all the objections springing from cherished theories of local self-government, and the inalienable rights of chartered trustees. I know what municipal institutions have done for England, and no one is inclined to preserve more jealously than I should be, the independence, within certain limits, of legally constituted local authorities. But no one can say that hitherto our endowed charities, and especially our endowed educational charities, have been satisfactorily administered. No one, I imagine, will profess himself content with the existing condition of the majority of our middle schools. Even our great public schools have had to submit, some of them with not the best of grace, to the searching ordeal of general criticism, and more than one flaw has been discovered in their management.

Of course, Commissions can be appointed from time to time to investigate matters of this kind; and the Crown, I presume, at all times, can exercise visitatorial powers; and it may be said that most of these schools, all, indeed, that care for their reputation, are periodically examined. But an annual report, such as that made by the N.Y. academies to the Board of Regents, to be "known and "read of all men," is the stimulus that is needed to secure continuous efficiency; and, I can speak with some experience, an examiner,—even if competent,—in order to conduct his examination satisfactorily, would rather be more independent than he feels he can be, when he owes his appointment to the head master or even to the local trustees. At present, except general reputation, which in the case of some schools, particularly of some of the inferior middle-class schools, rests upon no very solid ground, perhaps on nothing better than a magnificent prospectus or an attractively worded advertisement—in some instances, simply on the lowness of the terms—the great mass of Englishmen of the middle class have no authentic guarantee at all upon which to rely when they are selecting a school for their sons, while their own want of leisure, and, it must be added in many cases, their incompetence for the task, precludes them from making any trustworthy inquiry for themselves. Inspection is universally acknowledged to be the salt of elementary education: I wonder how it is that our upper and middle schools have managed hitherto to escape from it, in any really satisfactory and efficient form. The publicity with which

" all material facts " relating to each school " are annually made " known to the State " through the machinery of the Board of Education, is considered in Massachusetts to be the secret of the immense progress that has taken place in education in that Commonwealth in the last 30 years.

Concluding observations.

With remarks on three more points, varying vastly in importance, but interesting from the fact that they all of them involve questions which just now are being agitated in England, I will have done. They are (1) the question of the employment of certificated teachers; (2) the question of supporting schools by rates; and (3) the question of what is to be apprehended from a purely secular education.

1. On the employment of certificated teachers.

1. Those who hold the view at present maintained in the office of the Committee of Council on Education will, of course, appeal to the universal American practice in support of their opinion. Nowhere, it will be asserted, in the States or in Canada, is a school entitled to its share of public aid unless its teacher possesses a certificate. In Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Upper Canada, Lower Canada, either a school committee, or a school commissioner, or a county or district board of examiners, examines, licenses, certificates every recognized teacher of a common school. And so far, the assertion is perfectly true. But though there is an identity in the name, there is no identity in the thing. These American certificates, bestowed sometimes after the briefest possible examination,* good only within a particular locality, valid only for a limited time, are as different as any thing can be conceived to be from the certificates of the Committee of Council issued, in most cases, after two years' training, always after a week's examination, and never without two years' probation as an actual teacher. If certificates of this kind were demanded of teachers, as a condition of a school's receiving the aid of the State, nine out of every ten American schools would be deprived at once of this source of income. In Massachusetts, which certainly is not the least advanced of the American commonwealths in this matter of education, the examination of the teacher is conducted by the school committee, and amounts to nothing more than the managers of the school satisfying themselves of the competency of the person they are going to employ.

Again, the position occupied by trustees and directors relatively to the school under the action of the elective principle is so different from that occupied by managers in England, that there is no analogy between the cases, and a protection which the State in distributing its bounty may consider necessary to secure its proper application there, may be quite unnecessary here. We have seen how, in many cases, the one fixed idea in trustees' minds is

* The mistress of a rural school in Massachusetts told me that her examination, by the Baptist minister of the township, was finished in half an hour. " But then you know," she added with charming naïveté, " my uncle is one of " the school committee."

that the cheapest teacher is the best; how sometimes, even in a large city like Philadelphia, men are found directing schools who themselves can hardly read and write; how strong the spirit of nepotism must not unfrequently be to require, as in the State of New York, an actual prohibition of law that any teacher should be within two degrees of relationship to a trustee. Phenomena like these would be thought strange England. Under the rule of "payment for results" the cheapest teacher is he or she who can earn most for the school. It would be rare to find a perfectly illiterate man even among the trustees of an endowed rural school. It is not often that the social position of managers would be such that they would desire to appoint to a village school a poor relation, and, indeed, the practice is almost obsolete of filling up such situations with discarded servants. In discussing this question it seems generally to be forgotten that the objects of the Committee of Council and of the managers are the same—to make the school as efficient as possible; and that, with competent inspectors, there ought to be no danger from the employment of uncertificated teachers. I have not, however, made these remarks for the sake of introducing my own opinions, but simply to prevent inferences being drawn from the American practice which it does not justify. When we have rate-supported schools, and managers chosen by household or manhood suffrage, a certificate for the teacher may be necessary for the protection of the school as well as of the State against abuses, but hardly before. And this remark leads me to the second conclusion which has forced itself upon my mind as a result of this inquiry.

2. On the support of schools by a system of rates.

II.—I have found that a rate-supported system of schools, whatever may be its apparent superficial uniformity, really exhibits all the inequalities of a voluntary system, and labours besides under certain special difficulties of its own. The subdivision of townships into school districts is considered in all the New England States as the most mischievous step ever taken in educational legislation. In cities where public spirit is higher and public opinion more enlightened the evil is not felt so much, though even there, as we have seen, the schools often fall a prey to the politicians. But in the country all the short-sighted parsimonious motives which too often actuate agricultural communities in relation to schools have full play; and if this is felt in America, how much more would it be felt in England, where the class who pay the rates would be one and the class who use the schools another. We may judge of the probable effects by what we see of the administration of the poor law. We know what many guardians consider sufficient for the bodily comfort of a poor man. Are they likely to have more liberal ideas of what is necessary for the mental culture of a poor man's child? Unless the central supervising authority were much more despotic and armed with much larger powers than with our notions of local self-government we should be inclined to tolerate, there would be no adequate security for the effective expenditure of the rates when they were collected. If people suppose that every American rate-supported

school is in a condition of efficiency, they are simply labouring under an entire misconception. There are as many degrees of goodness and badness in schools there as here. And

III. The establishment of a rate-supported system of schools must, I think lead, by a logical and moral necessity, to merely secular education. The maintenance of a denominational system would be impossible when the school became the property of ratepayers of all denominations. And, unhappily, there seems to be no middle course between a purely secular system and a purely denominational one. All expedients that have been devised, all compromises that have been attempted, appear to me either to result in nothing, or confessedly to break down. What is called the religious instruction, given under the American and Canadian systems is so faint a tincture as hardly to deserve being called religious instruction at all. It is merely a devotional exercise at the opening and closing of school. 3. On the possible results of secular education.

I am afraid that we in England, in our zeal for "denominational education," lay too much stress upon the adjective, too little upon the substantive; we seem to care more for the connection of our schools with particular religious communities, than for the fruit they really produce; we are too often content to hear that religious instruction is given, and don't pursue the inquiry far enough to ascertain whether it is given intelligently, by competent teachers.

I confess to the conviction growing more and more in my own mind, strengthened too by what I have heard and seen in America, that, what we need more of in England, is *intelligent* education; a real quickening of the minds of the people. And I say this quite as much in the interests of religion, as at the prospect of political changes. The results of this inquiry would make me much less hostile to a proposition for merely secular education, if such were inevitable, which I am far from thinking that it is, than I should have been ten years ago, when it would have simply shocked me. *The* difficulty I find, as a country clergyman, in teaching and preaching to an adult mixed congregation, lies in the slow and heavy intellectual movement of the mass of my hearers; their scanty vocabulary; their inability to appreciate an argument or follow a train of thought; their want of general and broad mental culture. I do not think that it can be maintained that the religious teaching of our schools has produced religious intelligence or religious stability in our people, at any rate, not in that class of our people who in their school days had most of such teaching; for the religious instruction given in one of our elementary schools is three times larger in quantity and time than what is received by a boy at Eton or Rugby. In my own village school, I have for some years past reduced the so-called religious instruction to a minimum. I only give—and I always try to give it myself—to my head class one lesson a week in the Old Testament, one lesson a week in the New Testament, and one lesson a week in the Church Catechism and Prayer-book. I think I can see good effects in the plan; certainly I have discovered no ill effects, or I should have altered it.

I do not pretend to know where we are drifting. But I have heard good and wise men say they would prefer a simply secular system to a "conscience clause," which they regard as compromising, and so imperilling, religious truth. And even a "conscience clause" would be more workable than an attempt to frame a creed or construct a catechism which all parties could be prevailed on to accept.

For myself, I could have hoped that things would have gone on as they are, or rather as they were; the system that we had, gradually making its way into districts which I know by experience to be dark enough, and to which it has not yet penetrated. But change appears to be the law of our time, and everybody is looking, some with hope, others with fear, for modifications of a system which, though it could not always overcome prejudice, nor, as with a magician's wand, change a niggard heart into a liberal hand, has done so much for England, and was capable of doing so much more.

I have said I do not know where we are drifting. But speaking only for myself again, I should not shrink from still taking what I conceive to be my proper place as a clergyman in relation to the school, even under a system of secular education. I should neither despair of Christianity nor of morality. The personal character of the teacher, the most powerful influence for or against both, would remain unchanged. The Sunday school would start out of its present lethargy into renewed life and vigour. The clergyman, if he cared to teach in the school at all, might find that he could establish as cordial and as hopeful relations between himself and the younger members of his flock through the medium of a lesson in arithmetic or grammar as through a lesson mainly occupied with the terms and formulæ of dogmatic or polemical theology. Preparation of candidates for Confirmation might not be more arduous or disheartening than it often is now. Sermons might have a better chance of being understood.* At any rate, religious truth in the alone sense in which every one prizes it—that is, in his own sense—would not have to be compromised, adjusted, trimmed, pared down. It would remain *res integra*, to be dealt with by each minister of religion in his own way, according to his own principles, at his own time.

On these grounds I have joined in the regret which I found expressed by Superintendents of Education in Pennsylvania and Upper Canada, that the clergy, as a body, stand aloof from the schools. On these grounds, while deprecating change at home as

* During my sojourn in America, I was invited half-a-dozen times to preach in the churches. A preacher can tell pretty well when he is holding the attention of his hearers. And it must be a satisfaction to a preacher in America to feel that he *can* hold his congregation when he has anything worth the saying or worth the listening to. Nowhere is the pulpit,—in spite of occasional extravagances—when in able hands, a more signal instrument of power; exercising its highest prerogative in convincing the *reason*, and "by manifestation of "the truth commending itself to every man's *conscience* in the sight of "God."

far as my own individual case is concerned, though not professing to be sufficiently acquainted with all the circumstances to pronounce dogmatically that no change is required, I could still, with a good conscience, co-operate, as a clergyman, with a scheme of education which, to many minds, would seem the extremest and most lamentable change of all.

I hope no reader will think that I am catching at an opportunity of obtruding my own opinions. The inquiry I have conducted helped powerfully, if not to form, at any rate, to mature them; and, as part of the fruits of that inquiry, I thought I might, without arrogance, and indeed that, in honesty, I ought to, lay them before the world.

I have now, my lords and gentlemen, completed, according to the best of my ability, the task that I was set to do. I hope I shall have succeeded in conveying a clear and distinct picture of facts to your minds, without exaggeration and without distortion. I was charged, on the eve of my departure on my mission, by a distinguished member of the House of Commons, who had learnt the nature of the duty I was to attempt to fulfil and felt an interest in the results of my inquiry to "divest my mind of all English prejudices." I am not conscious of having observed the phenomena, or written the foregoing report, under any influence of prejudice: whether or not I have been unconsciously the victim of any I must leave to the judgment of dispassionate readers. With regard to my aim, and to the greater or less measure of success with which I have been able to accomplish it, I can honestly say with De Tocqueville, "Je ne sais si j'ai réussi à faire connaître "ce que j'ai vu en Amérique, mais je suis assuré d'en avoir eu "sincèrement le désir, et de n'avoir jamais cédé qu'à mon insu "au besoin d'adapter les faits aux idées, au lieu de soumettre les "idées aux faits."*

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* *La Démocratie en Amérique*, Introduction, vol. i. p. 17. The edition of this work which I have used and from which I have quoted, is the 13th, in two volumes, Paris, Pagnerre Editeur, 1850.

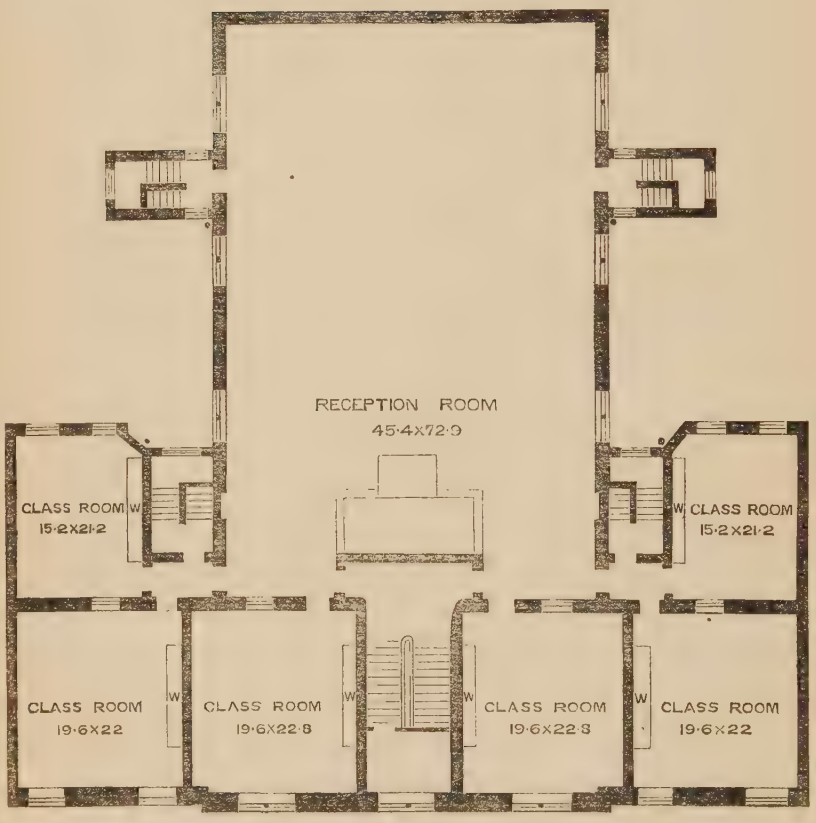
I may perhaps also be allowed to say here that it is possible that I may here and there have made an inadvertent slip in the designation I have given to this or that officer or body of officers connected with schools—calling, perhaps, a superintendent a commissioner, or a school committee a board of education. The names vary so constantly in America, the thing meanwhile remaining the same, that such lapses may be forgiven in a stranger. I do not believe that in any case, any confusion of *ideas* will have been produced in the reader's mind; and that, is the grand thing to be guarded against. The same apology must be permitted to extend to the nomenclature of the different grades of schools.

Mr. Barnard of Hartford, with the most unaffected kindness, invited me to come before I returned to Europe and spend as much time as I pleased in his library, with himself for a referee at my elbow—advantages which I believe Mr. Siljeström enjoyed in the composition of his Report. I wish that the time at my disposal could have allowed of my doing so. The tale I had to tell would, no doubt, have gained both in clearness and accuracy. I have, however, fortified almost every statement I have made with abundant references to original authorities; my own inferences and criticisms must be taken for what they are worth. All I vouch for is that they are *meant* to be legitimate and candid.

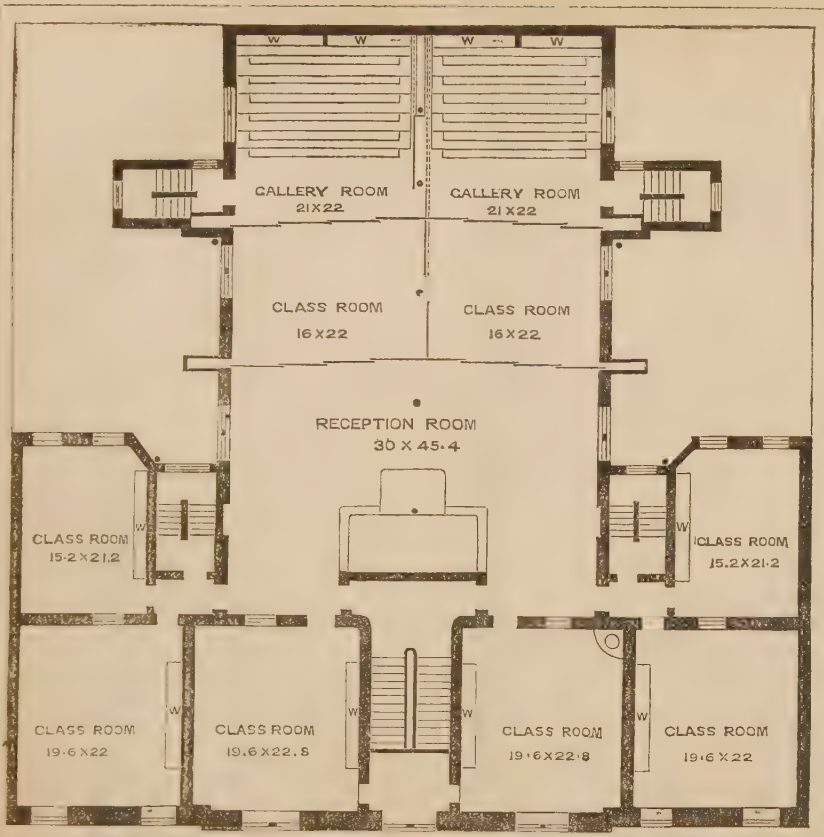
With a deep and grateful sense of the confidence you have reposed in me,

I have the honour to remain,
My Lords and Gentlemen,
Your most obedient Servant,
JAMES FRASER,
Assistant-Commissioner.

Ufton Rectory, Reading,
March 1st, 1866.



No. 5. PLAN OF FOURTH STORY—GRAMMAR SCHOOLHOUSE IN 23D STREET.



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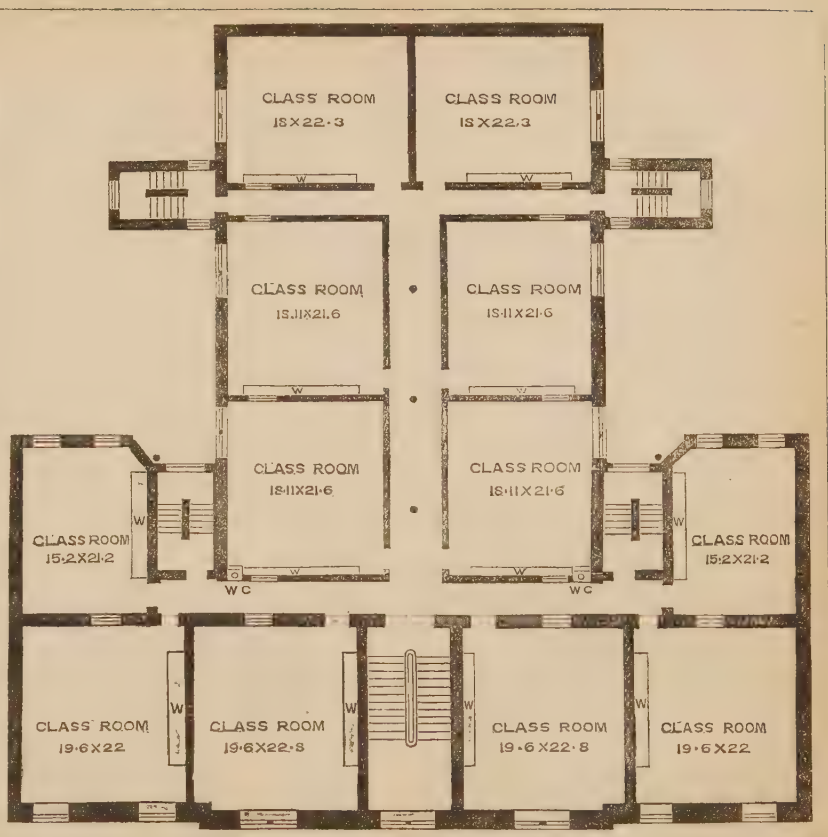

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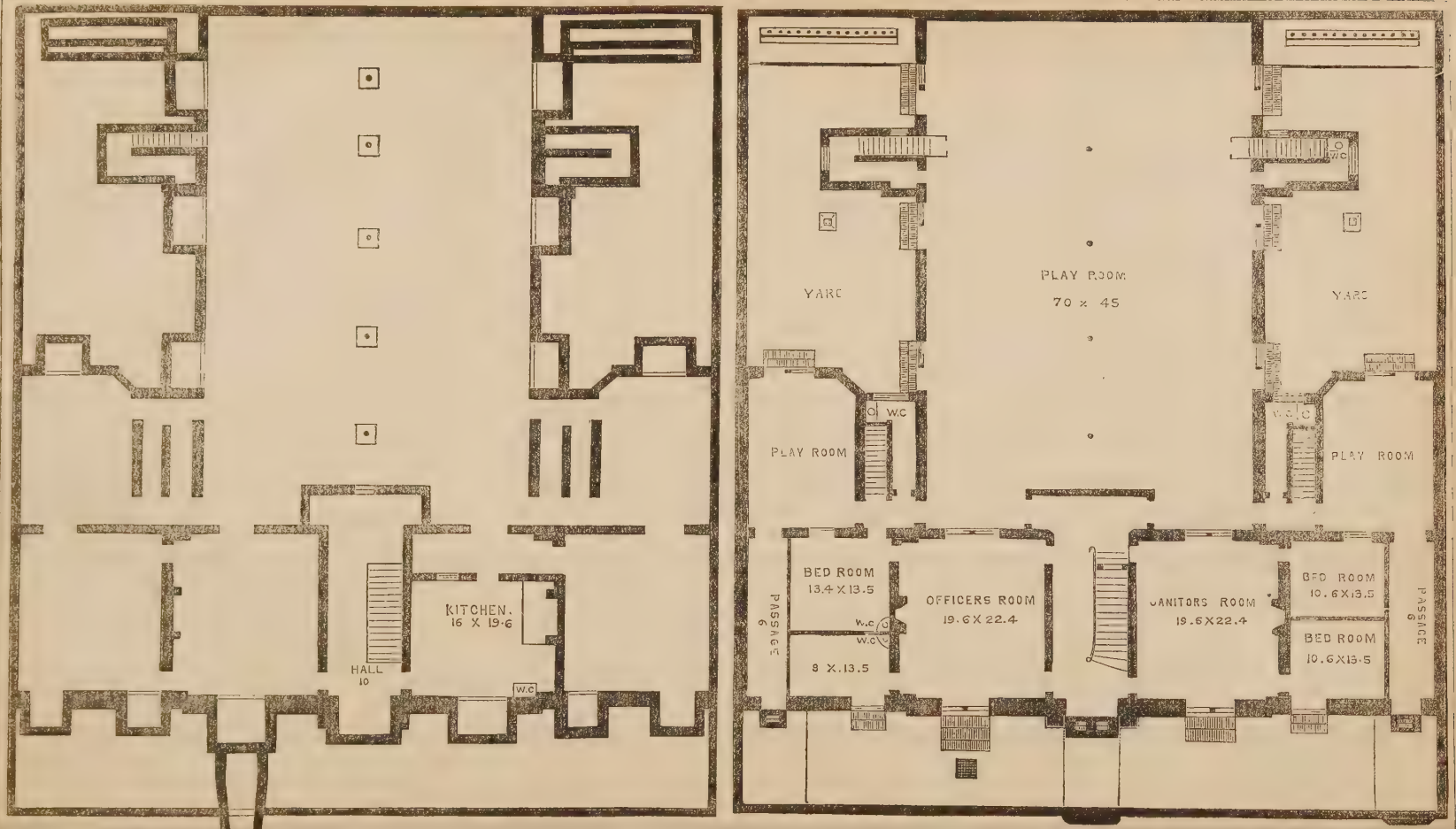
KITCHEN.
16 X 19·6
HALL
10
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YARD
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PLAY ROOM
BED ROOM
13.4 X 13.5
PASSAGE
W.C
W.C
8 X 13.5
OFFICERS ROOM
19.6X22.4
JANITORS ROOM
19.6X22.4
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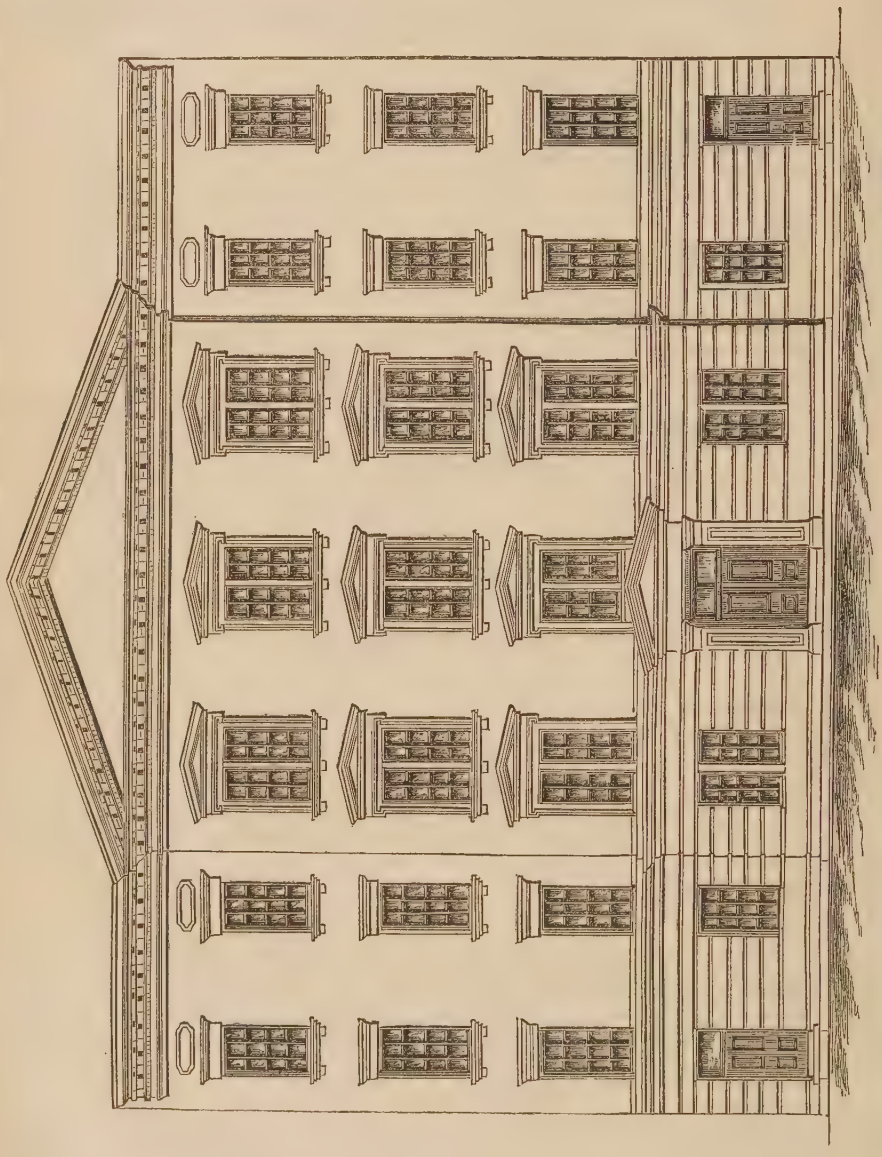
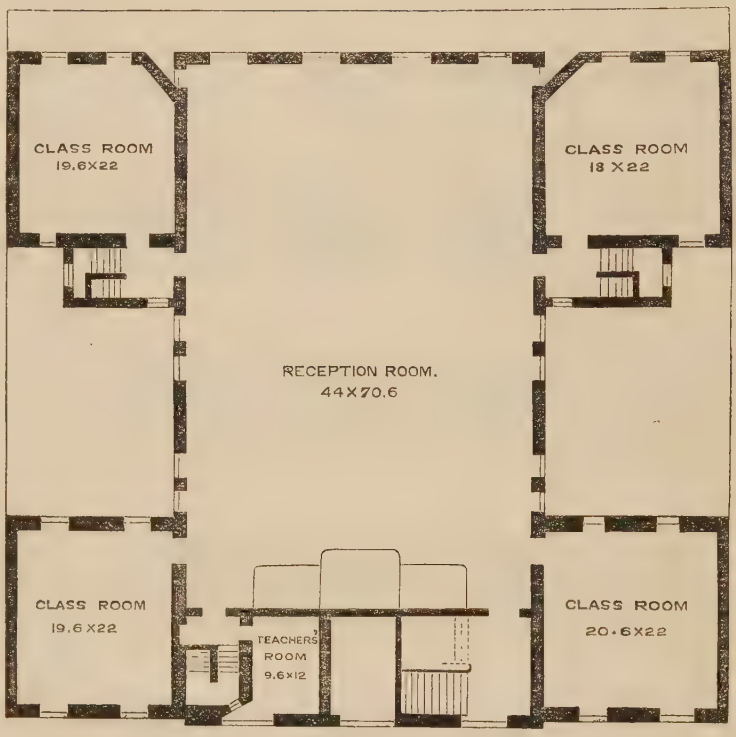
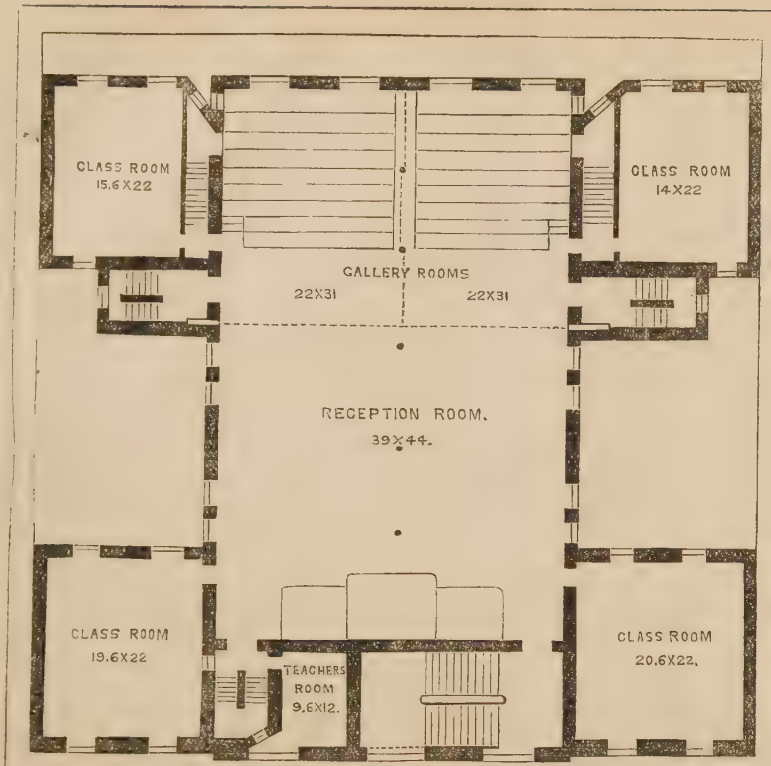
BED ROOM
10.6X13.5
PASSAGE





No. 5. PLAN OF FOURTH STORY—GRAMMAR SCHOOLHOUSE, No. 55.



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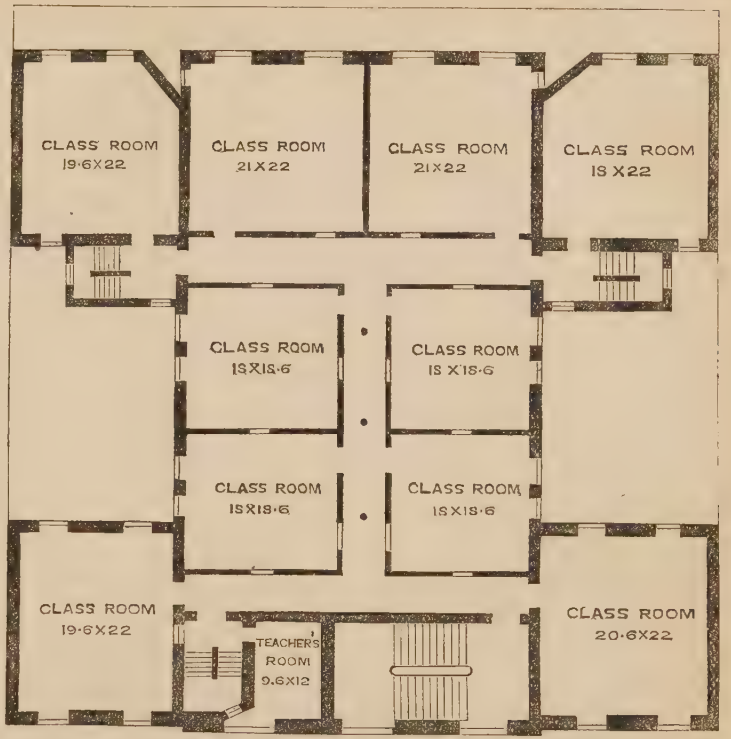

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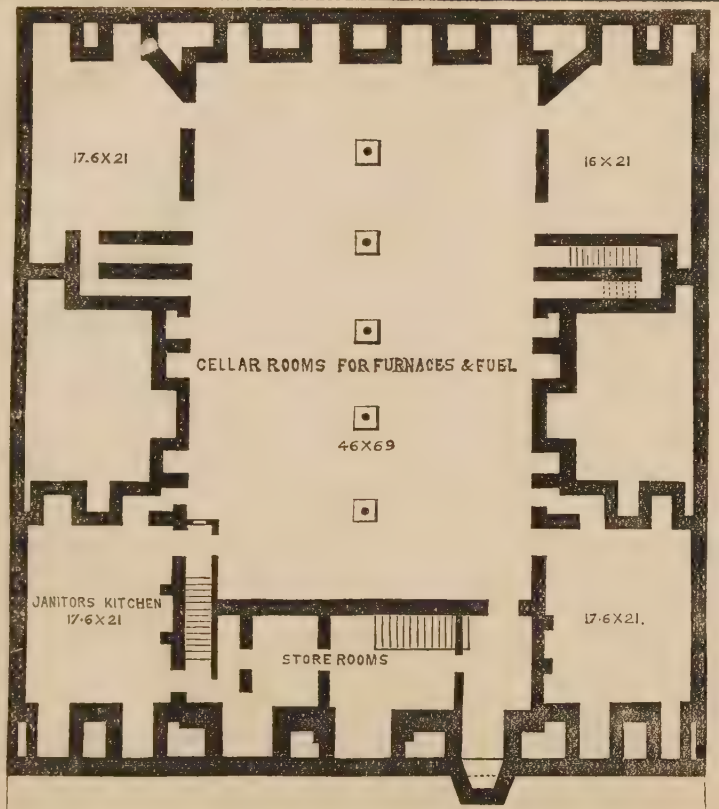
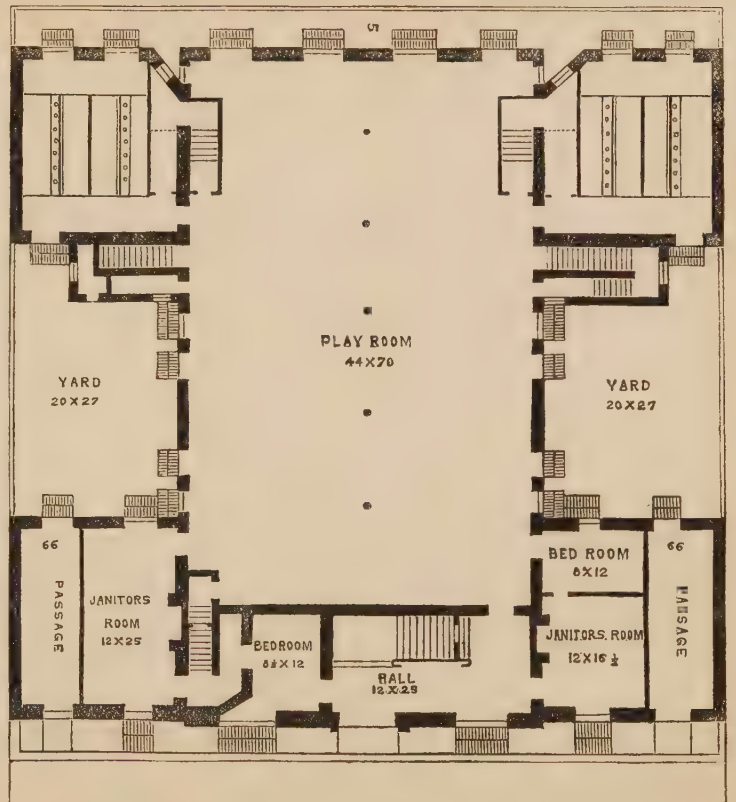
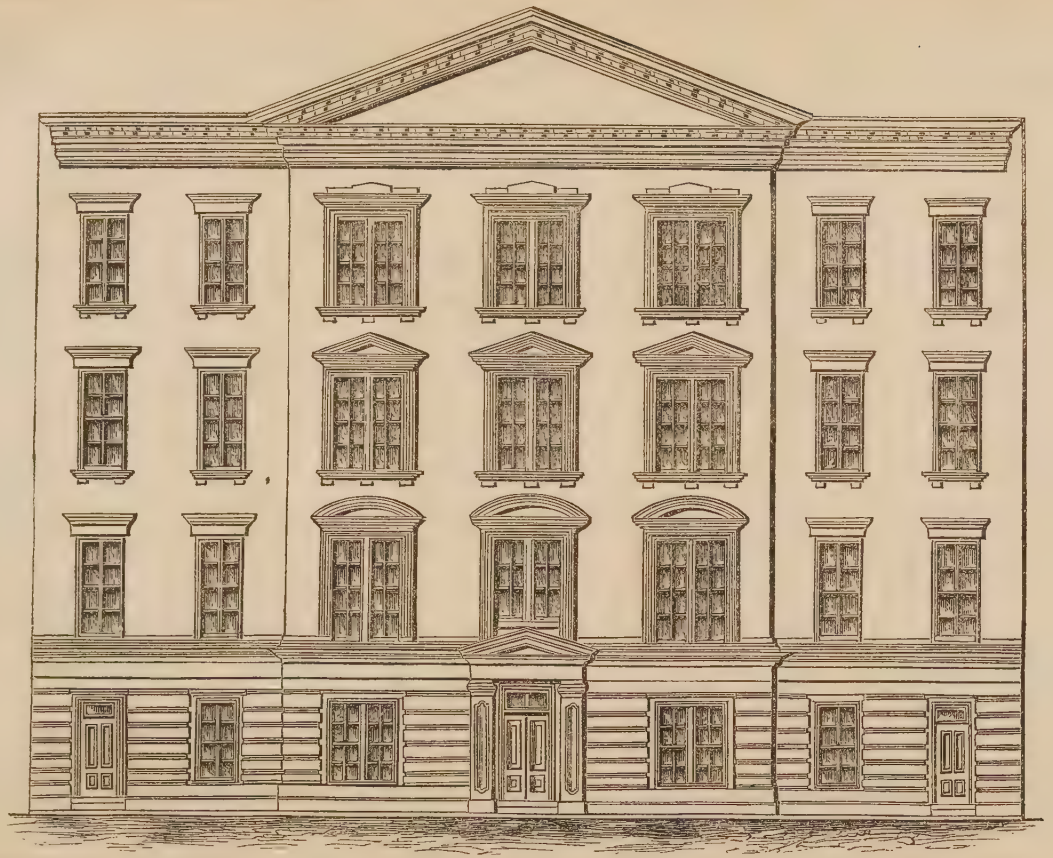


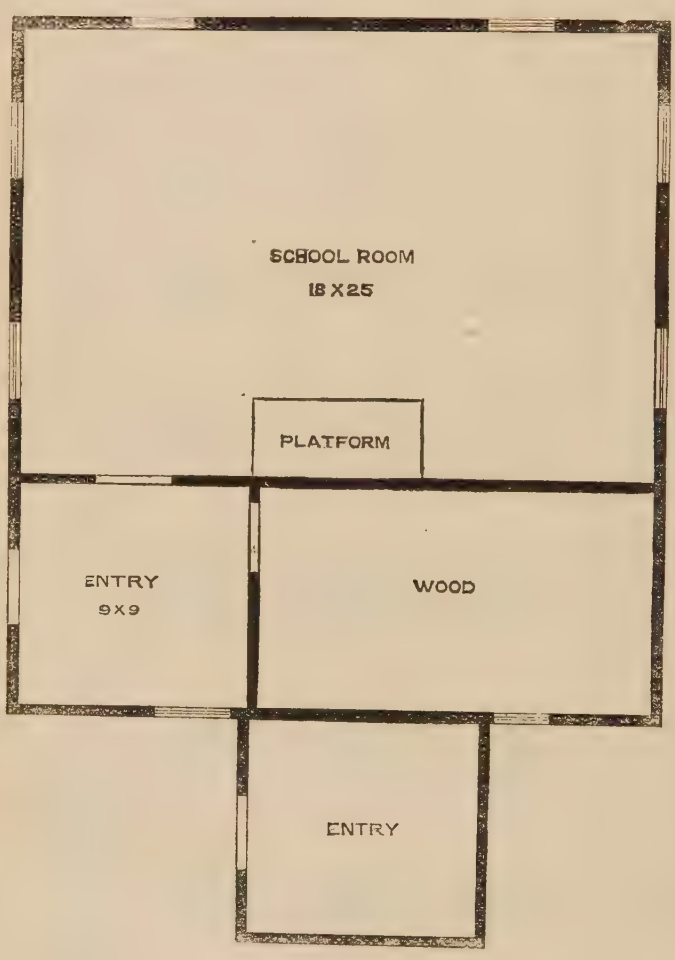
No. 1 .PLAN OF CELLAR—GRAMMAR SCHOOLHOUSE, No. 55.



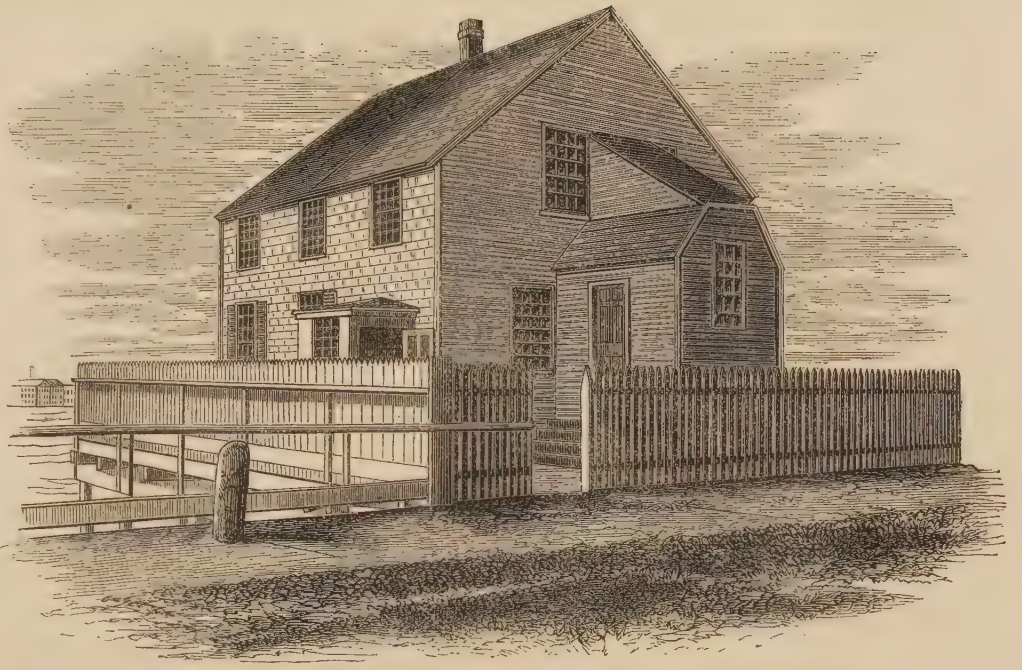
No. 2. PLAN OF FIRST STORY—GRAMMAR SCHOOLHOUSE, No. 55.



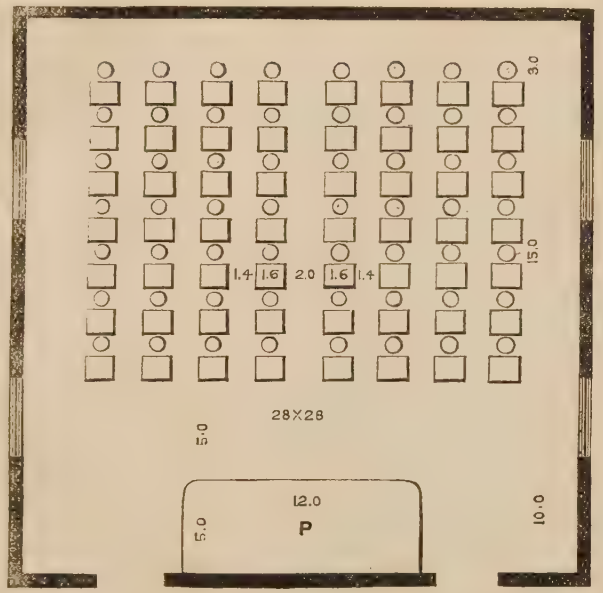
FRONT ELEVATION—GRAMMAR SCHOOLHOUSE, No. 55, WEST 20TH ST., BET. 6TH AND 7TH AVENUES—SIXTEENTH WARD, NEW YORK.



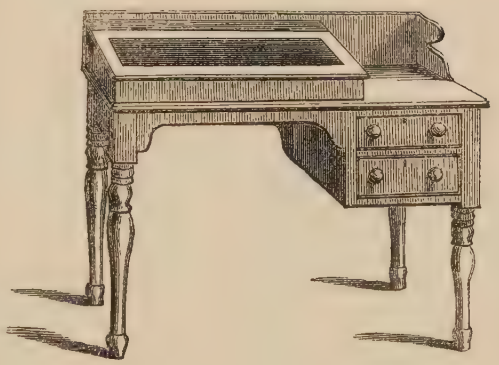
FIRST STORY OF PRIMARY SCHOOLHOUSE ON THE MILLDAM ROAD.



PRIMARY SCHOOLHOUSE ON THE MILLDAM ROAD, BOSTON, 1831.

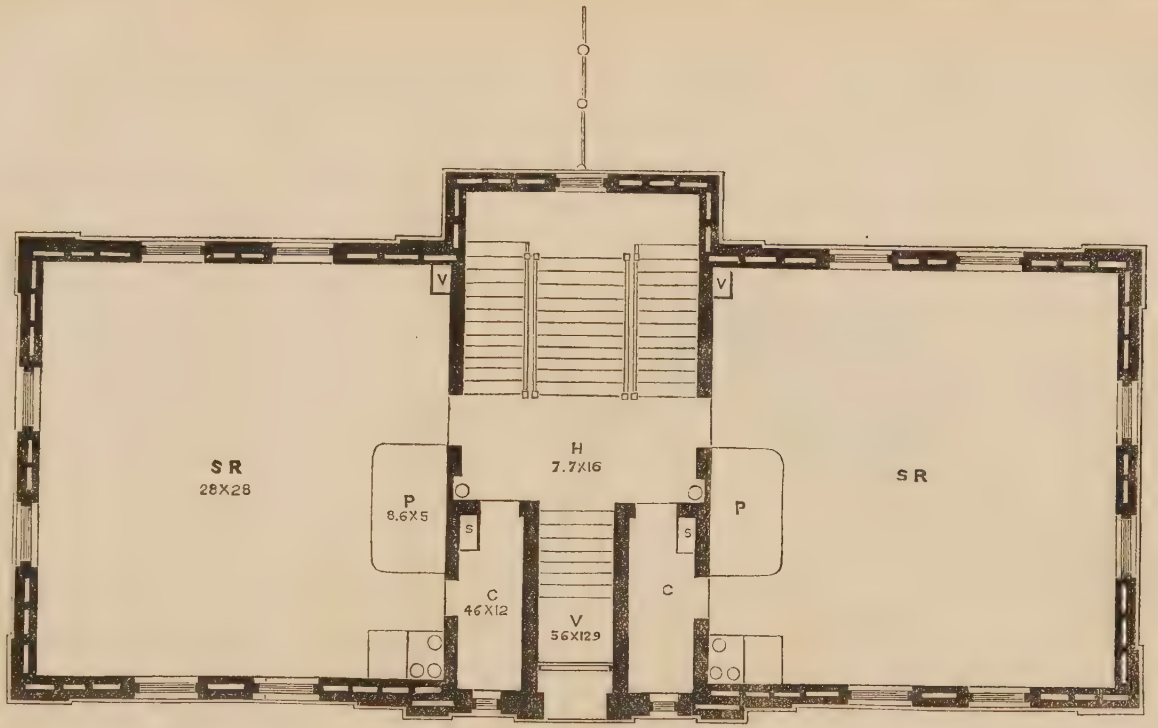


MODEL PRIMARY ROOM.

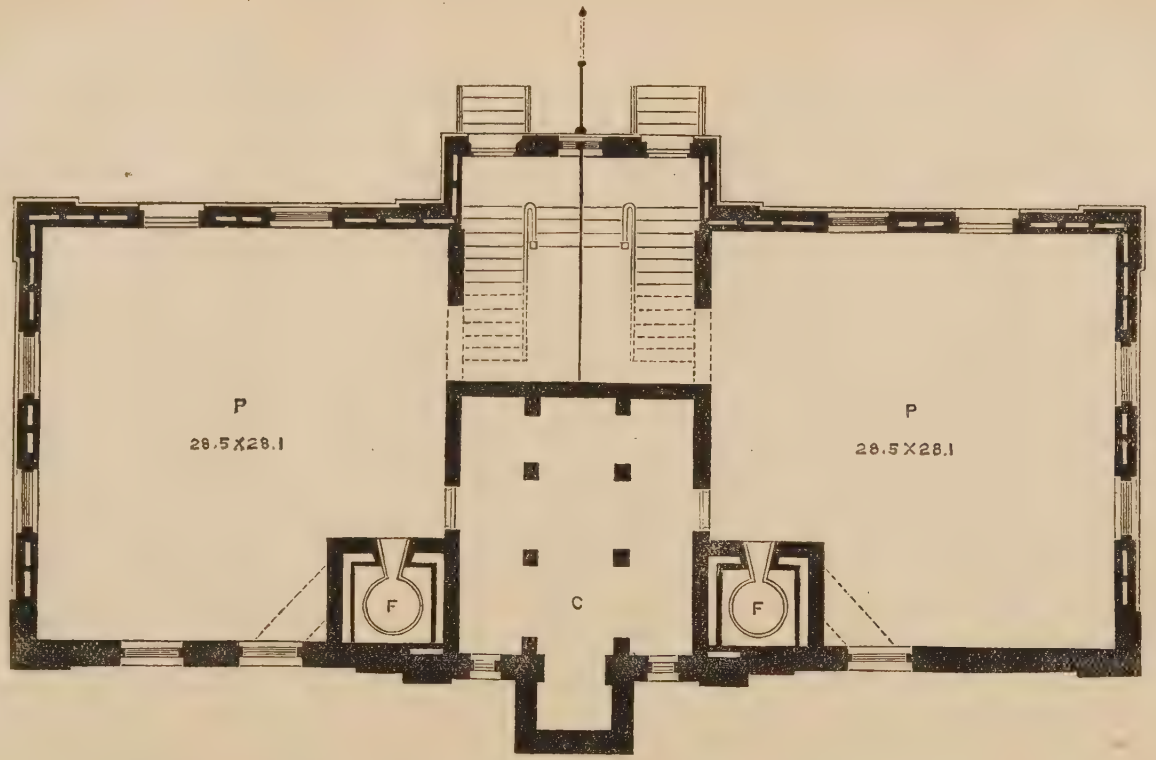


PRIMARY TEACHER'S DESK.

PRIMARY CHAIR AND DESK.



PRIMARY SCHOOLHOUSE ON WASHINGTON SQUARE—FIRST FLOOR.



PRIMARY SCHOOLHOUSE ON WASHINGTON SQUARE—BASEMENT.

PRIMARY SCHOOLHOUSE, WASHINGTON SQUARE, BOSTON, 1864.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX A.

ELEVATIONS, PLANS, and DESCRIPTIONS of three of the SCHOOL-HOUSES most recently erected in the Cities of Boston and New York, taken from the Reports of the School Committee and Board of Education respectively.

EXTRACT from the REPORT of the BOSTON SCHOOL COMMITTEE for 1864.

Primary Schoolhouses.

The accompanying cuts represent perspective views and plans of the two Primary Schoolhouses which illustrate most strikingly our progress in this department of school architecture. Here are shown in contrast the first and poorest building ever erected in this city for the accommodation of a Primary School, and the latest and best. The former was built in 1831, thirteen years after the establishment of Primary Schools here, and when the whole number of schools of this grade was 60, the registered number of pupils being 3,700. The whole cost of this edifice was $468. It is still occupied by a Primary School, but it will probably be vacated at the close of the present school year. It is a wooden structure, perched up on piles four or five feet above the high-water mark of the tide millpond. It is about 25 feet square, and two stories high, the upper room having been occupied as a missionary chapel, by the Old South Society. It has recently been furnished with the modern school chairs and desks, but the original furniture was of the most primitive description, consisting simply of long forms without backs. There were no desks or benches for writing, and no boxes or contrivances of any kind for keeping the books. There was no need of any provision for the safe keeping of slates, for in the early days of this building a slate in a Primary School was a rare phenomenon.

From this humble beginning we have gradually advanced by successive steps of progress, which are fully illustrated by buildings now standing, till we have at length reached, as the result of the experiments of the past 30 years, that combination of improvements in school architecture which is exhibited in the new building already referred to, a building which combines so many excellencies as to deserve perhaps to be called a model Primary Schoolhouse. By far the most important improvements in our Primary Schoolhouses have been made within the past 10 years. Indeed it is only since 1860 that we have been working with a clear and definite purpose in the erection of buildings for our Primary Schools. Previous to this time there was no recognized ideal standard or model plan, to which the buildings were made to conform as far as circumstances would permit, and each structure represented the idea of the Committee which happened to be in power at the time of its erection.

And, although such a standard has been kept constantly in view for four years past, owing to the difficulty of securing adequate lots, we have only now succeeded in coming fully up to its requirements in the edifice which has recently been completed on Washington Square.

The following outline and plan of a model Primary Schoolroom, adapted to our organization, to which the architect should endeavour to approximate as nearly as possible in designing Primary School buildings, was sketched by the Superintendent of Schools in his report of 1860 :—

" Fifty-six being the number of pupils to be accommodated, the arrangement of the desks for this number is the next thing to be done. The best mode of disposing of them seems to be to make seven rows with eight in a row. Arranged in this way, they will occupy a space in the form of a rectangle.

of which the longest side will be parallel with the teacher's platform. Each desk is one foot and a half long. The centre aisle should be two feet wide, and each of the others 16 inches. A chair and desk together require a little more than two feet from front to back. Fifty-six desks and chairs, with the above dimensions and arrangements, would occupy a rectangle 22 feet by 15. In the rear and on the sides of the space appropriated to seating, there should be a space not less than three feet wide. The teacher's platform should be at least five feet wide, and the area between the scholars' desks and the platform should be at least as wide. These measures will require a room 28 feet square in the clear. The height should be 12 feet in the clear. This size gives 168 cubic feet of air to each child, which would be sufficient to last 39 minutes without a fresh supply. The plan entitled 'Model Primary Schoolroom,' herewith submitted, represents the arrangements above described.

"An inspection of this plan will show that provision is made for blackboards in the rear and in front of the pupils, and for light on both sides. When practicable, the light should be admitted on the left side of the pupils as they sit, in preference to the right side. If light can be admitted only on one side of the room, the pupils should be seated with their backs towards it. This room is planned on the supposition that architectural considerations will make it necessary to admit the light on two opposite sides of the room, rather than on two adjacent sides. If the light is admitted on opposite sides, as in this plan, the seating should be so arranged that the blank walls may be in front and rear, while the windows are on the right and left of the pupils as they sit.

"Whatever may be the size of rooms in the building, each schoolroom should have attached to it a clothes closet. It is desirable that this closet should be accessible both from the entry and schoolroom. This closet should be from four to five feet in width, and about 15 feet in length, and lighted by a window."

In accordance with these ideas the building on Washington Square was designed by the accomplished architect, Nathaniel J. Bradlee, Esq., who has kindly furnished the following mechanical and architectural description:—

"The new schoolhouse on Washington Square is situated on a lot measuring 84 feet front, 55 feet 2⅜ inches on the west side, 126 feet 8½ inches on the rear, and 73 feet 3 inches on the east side, the building itself covering a space 77 feet 3 inches front by 31 feet 9 inches deep, with a projection in the rear 5 feet by 18 feet 6 inches, which is made so as to give sufficient depth for the stairway and clothes room. The façade is divided into three sections, the centre being 23 feet wide projecting 12 inches, and forming a regular pediment at the roof. There is a granite underpinning around the building averaging 5 feet high in front and 2 feet on the sides and rear; all above is of face brick with freestone trimmings, the whole being finished with a heavy cornice.

"The first story windows have moulded freestone caps; all the others are plain.

"The foundation stones, which are laid 3 feet 6 inches below the cellar bottom, are 1 foot 6 inches thick by 3 feet wide; on top of these the walls are carried up 20 inches thick in cement to the top of the floor, and above first floor the walls are vaulted with an air space of two inches, the outside wall being 12 inches thick and the inside one 4 inches thick.

"The inside partition walls are also of brick, and the plastering is put directly on the brickwork, so as to prevent any danger of fire communicating from one story to another. The basement is divided into two playrooms, each 28 feet 1 inch by 28 feet 5 inches, hall 15 feet by 16 feet 6 inches, fuel cellar 16 feet 6 inches by 17 feet, and two furnaces 8 feet square each. The first, second, and third stories respectively are divided into two schoolrooms each 28 feet square; two clothes rooms, each 4 feet 6 inches by 12 feet, hall 16 feet by 20 feet 6 inches, including a landing 7 feet 7 inches by 16 feet; also a vestibule 5 feet 6 inches by 10 feet.

"Each clothes closet is supplied with water over an iron enamelled sink.

"All the schoolrooms, entries, and closets are sheathed 5 feet high so as to protect the plastering."

In the second and third stories, the apartments corresponding to the vestibule [V] as represented in the cut of the first floor, are designed for teachers' dressing rooms.

The furniture for pupils and teachers are of the best description, and was manufactured at the well known establishment of Joseph L. Ross, Esq., in this city. The style is exhibited in the accompanying cuts.

The engraving and the plan of the Primary Schoolhouse on the Milldam Road will give an idea of the ordinary type of "framed" schoolhouse which prevails almost universally in rural districts in the States.

Grammar School No. 55, in West Twentieth Street, Sixteenth Ward, New York.

Grammar School, No. 55, is situated on the south side of West Twentieth Street, 256 feet east from Seventh Avenue, in the Sixteenth Ward.

The lot on which it is built is 90 feet 4 inches front, 87 feet 6 inches rear, by 92 feet deep, and cost twenty-three thousand dollars ($23,000.)

The main building is 47 feet front by 87 feet deep, two front wings each 21 feet 8 inches by 25 feet deep, two rear wings each 21 feet by 25 feet deep. The main building, including the wings, has an entire front of 90 feet 4 inches, being the full size of the lot.

The first story is faced with polished brown stone, and the front window trimmings above the first story are of the same material. The front of all the stories above the first is faced with Philadelphia pressed brick; the cornice is of galvanized iron, painted and sanded in imitation of brown stone. The front of the building presents a very neat and attractive appearance.

The appearance of the front, the arrangement of the interior, location of the stairs, play rooms, class rooms, &c., may be readily seen and understood by referring to the accompanying front elevation, and plans Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. The building is four stories high above the cellar. The heights of the cellar and several stories are as follows:—Cellar, 9 feet; first story, 9 feet; second and third, 14 feet; and fourth story, 17 feet.

The building throughout, except the janitor's room and rear stairways, is warmed with fresh air, heated by contact with steam radiators placed in the cellar. The heat is transmitted through tin pipes of an oval form, and through registers in the rooms. Flues are constructed in the brick walls of the building for ventilation, terminating under the roof, and the impure air escapes through four 30-inch ventilators which are placed along the peak of the roof.

The stairs used by the scholars are built of stone, and enclosed with brick, which renders them fire-proof.

The assembly rooms are furnished, as usual, with fancy settees, each alternate row being arranged so as to be used for writing purposes. The gallery and class rooms are furnished with open-back settees, bookcases, tables, &c. The class rooms will accommodate 1,250 scholars and the two assembly rooms 950 scholars.

The entire cost, including lot, building, furniture, and heating apparatus, was ninety-eight thousand and ninety-five dollars and eighty cents ($98,095.80).

The building was erected, furnished, and heated from plans and specifications prepared by the Superintendent of School Buildings of the Board of Education.

New Schoolhouse in East Twenty-third Street, Eighteenth Ward.

This schoolhouse is situated on the northerly side of Twenty-third Street, 170 feet west from Second Avenue in the Eighteenth Ward.

The lot on which it is built is 97 feet 7 inches front by 98 feet 9 inches deep, and cost twenty-six thousand dollars ($26,000).

The main building is 48 feet front by 98 feet 9 inches deep; two front wings 24 feet 9½ inches by 47 feet 6 inches deep; two side wings for stone stairs 9 by 13 feet.

The main building and the wings have an entire front of 97 feet 7 inches, being the full front of the lot.

The first story front is faced with polished brown stone, and the front window trimmings above the first story are of the same material. The front of all the stories above the first is faced with Philadelphia pressed brick; the cornice is of galvanized iron, painted and sanded in imitation of brown stone. The front of the building presents a very neat and attractive appearance.

The appearance of the front, the arrangement of the interior, location of the

stairs, play rooms, class rooms, &c., may be readily seen and understood by referring to the accompanying front elevation and plans Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5.

The building is four stories high above the cellar. The heights of the cellar and several stories are as follows:—Cellar, 9 feet; first story, 10 feet; second and third, 14 feet each; and fourth story, 17 feet. The building throughout, except the janitor's rooms and rear stairways, is warmed with fresh air, heated by contact with steam radiators placed in the cellar. The heat is transmitted through tin pipes of an oval form, and through registers in the rooms. Flues are constructed in the brick walls of the building for ventilation, terminating under the roof, and the impure air escapes through four 30-inch ventilators, which are placed along the peak of the roof.

The stairs used by the scholars are built of stone, and enclosed with brick, which renders them fire-proof.

The assembly rooms are furnished, as usual, with fancy settees, each alternate row being arranged so as to be used for writing purposes. The gallery and class rooms are furnished with open-back settees, bookcases, tables, &c.

The building contains 26 class-rooms, which will seat 1,500 scholars, also two assembly rooms, which will seat 900 scholars.

The entire cost, including lot, building, furniture, and heating apparatus, was one hundred and six thousand six hundred and thirty-five dollars ($106,635).

The building was erected, furnished, and heated from plans and specifications prepared by the Superintendent of School Buildings of the Board of Education.

APPENDIX B.

COURSE of STUDY prescribed for—

1. The Primary, Grammar, and High Schools of Boston.
2. For the Free Academy, New York.
3. For the Schools of Newhaven.

BOSTON SCHOOL REGULATIONS.

Regulations of the Primary Schools.

Admission of pupils to Primary Schools.

Section 1. Every teacher shall admit to her school all applicants of suitable age and qualifications, residing nearest to the school under her charge, provided the number in her school will warrant the admission; and in all cases of doubt or difficulty in the discharge of this duty she shall apply to her Sub-Committee for advice and direction.

Transfer of pupils.

Sect. 2. When any child shall apply to be admitted from another Primary School the teacher shall require a certificate of transfer from the teacher of the former school, which certificate shall serve instead of a certificate of vaccination.

Absence of pupils

Sect. 3. Whenever any scholar is absent from school the teacher shall immediately ascertain the reason; and if such absence be continued, and is not occasioned by sickness or other sufficient cause, such child, with the consent of the Sub-Committee, may be discharged from school, and a record of the fact be made.

Promotion to Grammar Schools.

Sect. 4. The regular promotion of scholars to the Grammar Schools shall be made semi-annually, on the first Monday in March, and on the first Monday in September; but occasionally promotions may be made on Monday of any week, whenever the Sub-Committee of the Primary School and the master of the Grammar School may deem it *necessary*.

Schools for special instruction.

Sect. 5. One or more schools for the special instruction of children *over seven years of age*, and not qualified for the Grammar School, may be established in each district. The course of study shall be the same as in the Primary Schools; and it shall be in the power of each District Committee to introduce Writing and the elements of Written Arithmetic. Any scholar over eight years of age, and not in the first or second class, may be removed from any Primary School to a school for special instruction, at the discretion of the Sub-Committee.

Sect. 7. The teachers shall attend to the physical education and comfort of the pupils under their care. When, from the state of the weather or other causes, the recesses in the open air shall be impracticable, the children may be exercised within the room, in accordance with the best judgment and ability of the teachers. In the schools which are kept in buildings occupied by Grammar Schools the recesses shall be arranged by the masters so as not to interfere with the exercises of those schools. Proper care of the pupils in school. Recesses for Primary Schools in Grammar School buildings.

Sect. 8. The schools shall contain, as nearly as practicable, an equal number of pupils, the maximum number being 56; and the pupils in each of the schools shall be arranged in six classes, unless otherwise ordered by the District Commitee. Number of pupils to a school. Classes.

Sect. 9. Plain sewing may be introduced into any Primary School, at the discretion of the Sub-Committee, and singing shall form part of the opening and closing exercises of every session; and such time be devoted to instruction in Music in each school as the Sub-Committee may deem expedient. Sewing. Singing.

Sect. 10. *The following Books and Studies shall be attended to in the respective classes. The order of the exercises and lessons assigned to each class to be determined by the teacher; subject, however, to the direction of the Committee of the school.*

Sixth Class.

Hillard's First Primary Reader.—To the 30th page; the words in columns to be spelled without book, and also words selected from the reading lessons.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Number 11, the words and elementary sounds repeated after the teacher. Number 1, the name and sound of each letter, including the long and short sound of each vowel. Number 15, to be read and spelled by letters and by sound, and read by calling the words at sight. Number 16 to be read by spelling and by calling words at sight, with oral lessons on the meaning of the sentences. Number 13 to be spelled by sounds. Numbers 9 and 10 to be used in reviewing the alphabet for variety of forms of letters. Number 5, the pupil to name and point out the lines and plane figures. Number 2, analyze the forms of the capitals and tell what lines compose each.

Boston Primary School Slate, No. 1.—Print the small letters and draw the straight lines and the rectilinear figures. The blackboard and tablets to be used in teaching the slate exercises.

Develop the idea of numbers to 10 by the use of objects. Count to 100 on the numeral frame.

Repeating verses and maxims. Oral lessons on size, form, and colour, illustrated by objects in the schoolroom; also upon common plants and animals, illustrated by the objects themselves or by pictures.

Learning to read and spell from letter and word cards, at the option of the teacher.

Singing for 5 or 10 minutes, twice at least each day.

Physical exercises for 5 or 10 minutes, twice at least each session.

Fifth Class.

Hillard's First Primary Reader.—As in the sixth class, completed.

My First School Book.—For spelling to the 24th page, and for reading to the 70th page.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Review the exercises on Tablets prescribed for the sixth class. Number 19 entire, and number 20 to L. Number 6, name and point out the figures and their parts. Number 11 to be taught from the tablet. Number 14, syllables to be spelled by sound.

Boston Primary School Slate, No. 1.—Review the slate exercises prescribed for the sixth class. Print the capital letters, also short words; draw the curvilinear figures.

Counting real objects, and counting with the numeral frame by twos to 100.

Repeating verses and maxims. Oral lessons on form, size, and colour, and on plants and animals. Singing and physical exercises as above.

Fourth Class.

My First School Book.—Completed both as a reader and a speller.

Hillard's Second Primary Reader.—To the 50th page; the words in columns to be spelled, and also words selected from the reading lessons. Spelling words by sounds.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Numbers 5 and 6 reviewed, with description or analysis of the lines and figures. Numbers 11, 13, and 14 reviewed. Numbers 12 and 20 to be learned. Numbers 17 and 18, names of punctuation marks.

Boston Primary School Slate, No. 1.—Used daily. Copies in printing and drawing reviewed and completed. Printing four or five words daily. Writing Arabic figures.

Adding and subtracting numbers to 20, illustrated by objects and the numeral frame. Counting on the numeral frame by twos to 100, and by threes to 50.

Repeating verses and maxims. Oral lessons on objects as above, with their parts, qualities, and uses. Singing and physical exercises as above.

Third Class.

Hillard's Second Primary Reader.—Completed; the words in columns to be spelled, and also words selected from the reading lessons. At each lesson in reading and spelling, words spelled by sounds. Conversations on the meaning of what is read.

Spelling and Thinking Combined.—To the 35th page. Spelling words by sounds. Questions on the meaning of words.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Numbers 5, 6, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 20, reviewed. Number 3. Number 18, use of punctuation marks commenced.

Boston Primary School Slate, No. 2.—Write the small script letters and draw the plane figures. Exercises in writing and drawing to be illustrated by tablets and blackboard. Print a few words in capitals.

Eaton's Primary School Arithmetic, or North American Arithmetic.—Begun. Miscellaneous questions in adding and subtracting small numbers. Practical questions involving similar combinations. The idea of multiplication devolving by the use of the numeral frame. Numbers to be combined, occasionally written on slates from dictation.

Repeating verses and maxims. Abbreviations. Oral lessons as above, and upon common objects and the senses. Singing and physical exercises as above.

Second Class.

Hillard's Third Primary Reader.—To the 100th page; the words in columns to be spelled, and also words selected from the reading lessons. Difficult words to be spelled by sounds. Conversations on the meaning of what is read.

Spelling and Thinking Combined.—To the 75th page. Spelling words by sounds. Questions on the meaning of words.

Eaton's Primary Arithmetic, or North American Arithmetic.—Addition, subtraction, and multiplication tables to be learned, and the practical questions under these rules to be attended to.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Numbers 3, 5, 6, 11, 12, and 18 to be reviewed. Number 7, drawing and oral lessons on the objects represented. Number 18, uses and definitions of points and marks learned, and applied in reading lessons.

Boston Primary School Slate, No. 2.—Writing capital and small letters, and drawing planes and solids, with illustrations from tablets and blackboard. Writing short words. Review abbreviations and Roman numerals.

Repeating verses and maxims. Oral lessons on objects, trades, and the most common phenomena of nature. Singing and physical exercises as above.

First Class.

Hillard's Third Primary Reader.—Completed; with definitions, explanations, spelling by letters and by sounds; also questions on punctuation, the use of capitals, and the marks indicating the pronunciation.

Spelling and Thinking Combined.—Completed. Spelling words by sounds. Questions on the meaning of words.

Eaton's Primary Arithmetic, or North American Arithmetic.—Completed. The tables of multiplication and division to 12×12 and $144 \div 12$. Notation to 1,000. Counting by threes and fours forwards to 100, and backwards from 100 to 1. Practical questions to be attended to.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Review those used in the second class. Frequent drill on number 12. Number 8, drawing and oral lessons on the objects represented.

Boston Primary School Slate, No. 2.—Writing capitals and small letters. the pupil's name, and words from the spelling lessons, with particular care to imitate the letters on the frame. Drawing all the copies on the frame.

Repeating verses and maxims. Review abbreviations. Oral lessons on objects, trades, occupations, with exercise of observation by noting the properties and qualities of objects, comparing and classifying them, considering their uses, the countries from which they come, and their modes of production, preparation, or fabrication.

Singing and physical exercises as above.

Sect. 11. No scholars are to be promoted from one class to another till they are familiar with all the lessons of the class from which they are to be transferred, except for special reasons satisfactory to the Sub-Committee.

Regulations of Grammar Schools.

Section 1. These schools form the second grade in the system of public instruction established in this city. Second grade.

The following are their names, locations, and dates of establishment:—

Name.	Location.	Sex.	Established.
1—Eliot School	North Bennet Street	For Boys	1713
2—Franklin School	Ringgold Street	„ Girls	1785
3—Mayhew School	Hawkins Street	„ Boys	1803
4—Boylston School	Fort Hill	„ Boys	1819
5—Bowdoin School	Myrtle Street	„ Girls	1821
6—Hancock School	Richmond Place	„ Girls	1822
7—Wells School	Blossom Street	„ Girls	1833
8—Winthrop School	Tremont Street	„ Girls	1836
9—Lyman School	East Boston	„ Boys and Girls	1837
10—Lawrence School	South Boston	„ Boys and Girls	1844
11—Brimmer School	Common Street	„ Boys	1844
12—Phillips School	Southac Street	„ Boys	1844
13—Dwight School	Springfield Street	„ Boys	1844
14—Quincy School	Tyler Street	„ Boys	1847
15—Bigelow School	South Boston	„ Boys and Girls	1849
16—Chapman School	East Boston	„ Boys and Girls	1849
17—Adams School	East Boston	„ Boys and Girls	1856
18—Lincoln School	South Boston	„ Boys and Girls	1859
19—Everett School	Northampton Street	„ Girls	1860
20—Bowditch School	South Street	„ Girls	1861

In these schools are taught the common branches of an English Education.

Sect. 2. The schools for boys shall each be instructed by a master, a sub-master, an usher, a head assistant, and three or more female assistants. Instructors in boys' schools.

The schools for girls shall each be instructed by a master, a head assistant for each story in the building, and three or more female assistants. In girls' schools.

The mixed schools (boys' and girls') shall each be instructed by a master, a sub-master, a head assistant for each story in the building, and three or more female assistants. In mixed schools.

Any existing exceptions to the foregoing organizations, authorized by special vote of the Board, shall remain until otherwise ordered.

Sect. 3. Each school shall be allowed a teacher for every 56 pupils on the register, and an additional female assistant may be appointed whenever there Number of pupils to a teacher.

are 30 scholars above the complement for the teachers already in the school, if the District Committee deem it expedient; and whenever the number of pupils on the register shall be reduced to 30 less than such complement, one female assistant may be removed from such school, if the District Committee recommend it; provided that, in determining the number of teachers to which any school may be entitled under this section, one head assistant shall not be counted.

Qualifications for admission to the Grammar Schools.

Sect. 4. Any pupil may be admitted into the Grammar Schools who, on examination by the master or any of his assistants, shall be found able to read, at first sight, easy prose; to spell common words of one, two, or three syllables; to distinguish and name the marks of punctuation; to perform mentally such simple questions in Addition, Subtraction, and Division as are found in Part First of Emerson's North American Arithmetic; to answer readily to any proposed combination of the Multiplication Table in which neither factor exceeds 10; to read and write Arabic numbers containing three figures, and the Roman numerals as far as the sign of 100; and to enunciate, clearly and accurately, the elementary sounds of our language. And no pupil who does not possess these qualifications shall be admitted into any Grammar School, except by special permit of the District Committee.

Examination of primary scholars for promotion to Grammar School.

Certificates of admission.

Sect. 5. Within the two weeks preceding the first Monday in March, annually, the Master of each Grammar School shall visit each Primary which is expected to send pupils to his school; and he shall examine the first class in each of said schools, and shall give certificates of admission to the Grammar School to such as he may find qualified in accordance with the foregoing requirements. But in the month of July, annually, each teacher in the Primary Schools shall accompany her first class to such Grammar Schoolhouse in the vicinity as the master may designate, when he and his assistants shall examine the candidates for admission to the Grammar School, in presence of their instructors, and shall give certificates to those who are found to be properly qualified. If, however, the parent or guardian of any applicant not admitted on the examination of the master is dissatisfied with his decision, such person may appeal to the District Committee for another examination of said applicant.

Times of admitting pupils to Grammar Schools.

Sect. 6. Pupils admitted from the Primary Schools are expected to enter the Grammar Schools on the first Monday of March and of September; but all other applicants residing in the District, found on examination *qualified in all respects*, may enter the Grammar Schools by applying to the master at the schoolhouse on Monday morning of any week when the schools are in session. Pupils regularly transferred from one Grammar School to another may be admitted at any time, on presenting their certificates of transfer, without an examination.

Out-of-school lessons.

Sect. 7. No lessons shall be assigned to girls to be studied out of school, and in assigning out-of-school lessons to boys, the instructors shall not assign a longer lesson daily than a boy of good capacity can acquire by an hour's study; nor shall the lessons to be studied in school be so long as to require a scholar of ordinary capacity to study out of school in order to learn them; and no out-of-school lessons shall be assigned on Saturday.

Classes and sections.

Sect. 8. Each school or department of a school shall be divided into four classes. Each class shall consist of two or more divisions, each of which sections shall pursue the studies and use the text-books assigned to its class; but whenever it shall appear that a division of a lower class has in any particular branch of study made the attainments requisite for promotion to a higher class at a period earlier than the regular time for general promotion, then such division may, at the discretion of the master, and with the approval of the Committee, enter upon the study of one of the text-books prescribed for the next higher class.

Text-books.

Sect. 9. The books and exercises of the several classes shall be as follows, viz.:—

Same.

Class 4.—No. 1. Worcester's Spelling Book. 2. Hillard's Fourth Class Reader. 3. Writing in each school in such Writing Books as the District Committee may approve. 4. Drawing in Bartholomew's Drawing Books. 5. Warren Colburn's First Lessons, new edition, with lessons in Written Arithmetic on the slate and blackboard. 6. Warren's Primary Geography.

Same.

Class 3.—No. 1. Worcester's Spelling Book. 2. Hillard's Third Class Reader. 3. Writing as in Fourth Class. 4. Warren Colburn's First Lessons,

new edition, and Eaton's Common School Arithmetic, revised edition. 5. Drawing in Bartholomew's Drawing Books. 6. Warren's Primary Geography. 7. Kerl's Elementary English Grammar.

Class 2.—No. 1. Spelling. 2. Hillard's Second Class Reader. 3. Writing as in Fourth Class. 4. Warren Colburn's First Lessons, new edition, and Eaton's Common School Arithmetic, revised editions. 5. Warren's Common School Geography, with exercises in Map Drawing on the blackboard, and by pen and pencil. 6. Kerl's Elementary English Grammar, or Earl's Comprehensive English Grammar. 7. Drawing in Bartholomew's Drawing Books. 8. Exercises in Composition, and, in the Boys' schools, Declamation. 9. Swan's First Lessons in the History of the United States. Text-books.

Class 1.—No. 1. Spelling.—Adams's Spelling Book for advanced classes, *permitted*. 2. Reading in Hillard's First Class Reader. 3. Writing, as in Fourth Class. 4. Geography, as in Class Two. 5. Warren Colburn's First Lessons, new edition, and Eaton's Common School Arithmetic, revised edition. 6. Grammar. 7. Exercises in Composition, and in the boys' schools, in Declamation. 8. Drawing in Bartholomew's Drawing Books. 9. Worcester's Dictionary. 10. Book-keeping by single entry. 11. Worcester's History. 12. Hall's Manual of Morals,—a Monday morning lesson, with oral instruction. 13. Instruction in Natural Philosophy, using Parker's Compendium, or Olmstead's Rudiments, as a text-book, with the Philosophical Apparatus provided for the schools, shall be given at least to the first division of the First Class. 14. Instructions in Physical Geography, by occasional exercises; the treatise of Warren, or of Cartée, being used as a text-book. 15. Hooker's Primary Physiology. Same.

Sect. 10. In teaching Arithmetic to the several classes, every teacher shall be at liberty to employ such books as he shall deem useful, for the purpose of affording illustration and examples; but such books shall not be used to the exclusion or neglect of the prescribed text-books; nor shall the pupils be required to furnish themselves with any books but the text-books. Permitted books.

Sect. 11. One treatise on Mental Arithmetic, and one treatise on Written Arithmetic, and no more, shall be used as text-books in the Grammar Schools. Text-books.

Sect. 12. Two half-hours each week in the Grammar Schools shall be devoted to the study and practice of Vocal Music. Instruction shall be given to the First and Second Classes by the music teachers. Musical notation, the singing of the scale, and exercises in reading simple music shall be practised twice a week by the lower classes under the direction of the assistant teachers; and the pupils shall undergo examinations and receive credits for proficiency in music, as in the other studies pursued in the schools. Instruction in music. Examination in music.

Sect. 13. It is recommended that in the arrangement of the studies and recitations in the Grammar Schools, those which most severely task the attention and effort of the pupils be, as far as possible, assigned for the forenoon. Arrangement of the studies and recitations.

Sect. 14. It shall be the duty of the Committee of each Grammar School, at the beginning of each school year, either at a special meeting called for this purpose, or through their chairman, previously authorized to act in their name, to superintend the organization of the first class, and to see that none are retained members thereof who ought to join the English High School, or the Girls' High and Normal School. Committees to superintend the organization of the first-class. No pupils to be retained who should join the High Schools.

Regulations of the English High School.

Sect. 1. This school is situated in Bedford Street. It was instituted in 1821, with the design of furnishing the young men of the city, who are not intended for a collegiate course of studies, and who have enjoyed the usual advantages of the other Public Schools, with the means of completing a good English education, and fitting themselves for all the departments of commercial life. The prescribed course of studies is arranged for three years, and those who attend for that period and complete that course, are considered to have been graduated at the school. Those who wish to pursue further some of the higher departments of mathematics, and other branches, have the privilege of remaining another year at school. This institution is furnished with a valuable mathematical and philosophical apparatus, for the purpose of experiment and illustration. To this school apply the following regulations, in addition to those common to all the schools. English High School established, and its object.

Instructors.

Sect. 2. The instructors in this school shall be a master, two sub-masters, and as many ushers as shall allow one instructor to every 35 pupils, but no additional usher shall be allowed for a less number. The Sub-Committee may furnish the master with an assistant in his room whenever the number of pupils remaining in the school through the fourth year shall in their judgment make it necessary. The salary of said assistant shall not exceed the salary paid to an usher in this school during his first year of service. It shall be a necessary qualification in all these instructors, that they have been educated at some respectable college, and that they be competent to instruct in the French language.

Time of examining candidates for admission.

Sect. 3. Candidates for admission to this school shall be examined once a year, on the Wednesday and Thursday next succeeding the exhibition of the Grammar Schools in July. Any boy then offering himself as a candidate for admission, shall present a certificate from his parent and guardian, that he has reached the age of 12 years, also a certificate of good moral character, and of presumed literary qualifications, from the master of the school which he last attended, and shall pass a satisfactory examination in the following studies, viz.: Spelling, Reading, Writing, English Grammar, Arithmetic, Modern Geography, and the History of the United States.

Annual examination of candidates.

Sect. 4. It shall be the duty of the Committee on the English High School to be present at the annual examination of candidates for admission, but said examination shall be conducted by the instructors, from questions previously prepared, on all the branches, and subject to the approval of the Committee. The examination shall be strict; and a thorough knowledge of the required studies shall be indispensable to admission.

Sect. 5. On admission, pupils shall be arranged in divisions according to their respective degrees of proficiency. Individuals, however, shall be advanced according to their scholarship, and no faster; and no one shall remain a member of the school longer than four years.

Reviews.

Sect. 6. It shall be the duty of the master to examine each division as often as may be consistent with the attention due to those under his immediate instruction. Each class or section shall be occasionally reviewed in its appropriate studies, and once a quarter there shall be a general review of all the previous studies of that quarter.

School hours.

Sect. 7. The school shall hold one session daily, commencing at 9 A.M. and closing at 2 P.M., except on Saturday, when the school shall close at 1 o'clock.

Course of studies and text-books.

Sect. 8. The course of study and instruction in this school shall be as follows:—

Class 3. 1. Review of preparatory studies, using the text-books authorized in the Grammar Schools of the city. 2. Ancient Geography. 3. Worcester's General History. 4. Sherwin's Algebra. 5. French Language. 6. Drawing.

Same.

Class 2.—1. Sherwin's Algebra, continued. 2. French Language, continued. 3. Drawing, continued. 4. Legendre's Geometry. 5. Book-keeping. 6. Blair's Rhetoric. 7. Constitution of the United States. 8. Trigonometry, with its application to Surveying, Navigation, Mensuration, Astronomical calculations, &c. 9. Paley's Evidences of Christianity,—a Monday morning lesson.

Same.

Class 1.—Trigonometry, with its applications, &c., continued. 2. Paley's Evidences, continued,—a Monday morning lesson. 3. Drawing, continued. 4. Astronomy. 5. Natural Philosophy. 6. Moral Philosophy. 7. Political Economy. 8. Natural Theology. 9. Shaw's Lectures on English Literature. 10. French, continued; or the Spanish Language may be commenced by such pupils as in the judgment of the master have acquired a competent knowledge of the French; Warren's Treatise on Physical Geography, or Cartee's Physical Geography and Atlas, is *permitted* to be used.

For the pupils who remain at the school the fourth year, the course of studies shall be as follows:—

Same.

1. Astronomy. 2. Intellectual Philosophy. 3. Logic. 4. Spanish. 5. Geology. 6. Chemistry. 7. Mechanics, Engineering, and the higher Mathematics with some option.

Same.

Sect. 9. The several classes shall also have exercises in English Composition and Declamation. The instructors shall pay particular attention to the penmanship of the pupils, and give constantly such instruction in Spelling,

Reading, and English Grammar, as they may deem necessary to make the pupils familiar with these fundamental branches of a good education.

Sect. 10. Each pupil who shall graduate from this school, having honourably completed its course of instruction to the satisfaction of the Principal and the Committee, shall be entitled to receive a suitable diploma on leaving school. Diplomas to graduates.

Regulations of the Girls' High and Normal School.

Sect. 1. This school is situated in Mason Street. It was instituted in 1852, with the design of furnishing to those pupils who have passed through the usual course of studies at the Grammar Schools for girls, and at other girls' schools in this city, an opportunity for a higher and more extended education, and also to fit such of them as desire to become teachers. The following are the regulations of this school, in addition to those common to all the schools. Establishment and object of the school.

Sect. 2. The instructors shall be, a master, and as many assistants as may be found expedient; but the whole number of assistants shall not exceed the ratio of one for every thirty pupils. Instructors.

Sect. 3. The examination of candidates for admission to the schools shall take place annually, on the Wednesday and Thursday next succeeding the day of the annual exhibition of the Grammar Schools in July. Admission of pupils.

Sect. 4. Candidates for admission must be over fifteen, and not more than nineteen years of age. They must present certificates of recommendation from the teachers whose schools they last attended, and must pass a satisfactory examination in the following branches, viz.: Spelling, Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, English Grammar, Geography, and History. Same.

Sect. 5. The examination shall be conducted by the instructors of the school, both orally and from written questions previously prepared by them, and approved by the Committee of the school. It shall be the duty of the said Committee to be present and to assist at the examination, and the admission of candidates shall be subject to their approval. Same.

Sect. 6. The course of studies and instruction in this school shall be as follows:— Course of instruction.

Junior Class.—Reading, Spelling, and Writing, continued. Arithmetic, Geography, and Grammar reviewed. Physical Geography, Natural Philosophy, Analysis of Language and Structure of Sentences. Synonymes. Rhetoric. Exercises in English Composition. History. Latin, begun. Exercises in Drawing and in Vocal Music.

Middle Class.—Natural Philosophy continued. English Literature. Algebra, Moral Philosophy. Latin, continued. French, begun (instruction given by a native French teacher). Rhetoric, with exercises in Composition, continued. Physiology, with Lectures. General History. Exercises in Drawing and in Vocal Music. Reading standard English Works, with exercises in Criticism.

Senior Class.—Latin and French, continued. Geometry. General History. Intellectual Philosophy. Astronomy. Chemistry, with lectures. Exercises in Composition. Exercises in Drawing and in Vocal Music. Exercises in Criticism, comprising a careful examination of works of the best English authors. Instruction in the theory and Practice of Teaching. Such instruction in Music shall be given to all the pupils as may qualify them to teach Vocal Music in our Public Schools.

Sect. 7. The sessions of the schools shall begin at 9 o'clock a.m. and close at 2 o'clock p.m., except on Wednesday and Saturday, when the school shall close at 1 o'clock. School hour

Sect. 8. Instead of a public exhibition in this school the parents and friends of the pupils shall be invited through the pupils to attend the regular exercises in the various rooms during the five days preceding the last school-day of the school year. And during such visitations the exercises of the school shall be conducted in the usual manner. Visitations by parents and friends.

Sect. 9. The plan of study shall be arranged for three years. Pupils who have attended for that period, and who have completed the course in a manner satisfactory to the teachers and the Committee on the school, shall be entitled to receive a diploma or certificate to that effect, on leaving school. Pupils may remain three years. Diploma.

Regulations of the Latin Grammar School.

Sect. 1. This school, situated in Bedford Street, was instituted early in the 17th century.

Objects of the school.

Sect. 2. The rudiments of the Latin and Greek languages are taught, and scholars are fitted for the most respectable colleges. Instruction is also given in Mathematics, Geography, History, Declamation, English Grammar, Composition, and in the French language.

The following Regulations, in addition to those common to all the schools, apply to this school.

Instructors.

Sect. 3. The instructors in this school shall be a master, a sub-master, and as many ushers as shall allow one instructor to every thirty-five pupils, and no additional usher shall be allowed for a less number.

Same.

Sect. 4. It shall be a necessary qualification for the instructors of this school that they shall have been educated at a college of good standing.

Candidates for admission.

Sect. 5. Each candidate for admission shall have attained the age of 10 years, and shall produce from the master of the school he last attended a certificate of good moral character. He shall be able to read English correctly and fluently, to spell all words of common occurrence, to write a running hand, understand mental arithmetic and the simple rules of written arithmetic, and be able to answer the most important questions in geography, and shall have a sufficient knowledge of English grammar to parse common sentences in prose. A knowledge of Latin grammar shall be considered equivalent to that of English.

Time of examining candidates for admission.

Sect. 6. Boys shall be examined for admission to this school only once a year, viz., on the Friday and Saturday of the last week of the vacation succeeding the exhibition of the school in July.

Pupils may remain six years.

Sect 7. The regular course of instruction shall continue six years, and no scholar shall enjoy the privileges of this school beyond that term unless by written leave of the Committee. But scholars may have the option of completing their course in five years, or less time, if willing to make due exertions, and shall be advanced according to scholarship.

School hours.

Sect. 8. The sessions of the school shall begin at 9 o'clock a.m., and close at 2 o'clock p.m. on every school day throughout the year, except on Saturday, when the school shall close at 1 o'clock.

Classes.

Sect. 9. The school shall be divided into classes and subdivisions, as the master, with the approbation of the Committee, may think advisable.

Sect. 10. The master shall examine the pupils under the care of the other teachers in the school as often as he can consistently with proper attention to those in his own charge.

Course of studies and text books.

Sect. 11. The books and exercises required in the course of instruction in this school are the following :—

Class 6.—1. Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar. 2. English Grammar. 3. Reading English. 4. Spelling. 5. Mental Arithmetic. 6. Mitchell's Geographical Questions. 7. Declamation. 8. Penmanship. 9. Andrews' Latin Lessons. 10. Andrews' Latin Reader.

Class 5.—1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, continued. 11. Viri Romæ. 12. Written Translations. 13. Colburn's Sequel. 14. Cornelius Nepos. 15. Arnold's Latin Prose Composition.

Class 4.—1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 12, 13, 15, continued. 16. Sophocles' Greek Grammar. 17. Sophocles' Greek Lessons. 18. Cæsar's Commentaries. 19. Fasquelle's French Grammar. 20. Exercises in speaking and reading French with a native French teacher.

Text-books.

Class 3.—1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 12, 13, 15, 16, 19, 20, continued. 21. Ovid's Metamorphoses. 22. Arnold's Greek Prose Composition. 23. Felton's Greek Reader. 24. Sherwin's Algebra. 25. English Composition. 26. Le Grandpere.

Same.

Class 2.—1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 15, 16, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, continued. 27. Virgil. 28. Elements of History. 29. Translations from English into Latin.

Same.

Class 1.—1, 7, 15, 16, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 27, 28, 29, continued. 30. Geometry. 31. Cicero's Orations. 32. Composition of Latin Verses. 33. Composition in French. 34. Ancient History and Geography.

Same.

The following books of reference may be used in pursuing the above studies :—

Leverett's Latin Lexicon or Gardner's Abridgment of the same.

Andrews' Latin Lexicon.

Liddell and Scott's Greek Lexicon, or Pickering's Greek Lexicon, last edition.

Worcester's School Dictionary.

Smith's Classical Dictionary.
Smith's Dictionary of Antiquities.
Baird's Classic Manual. Warren's Treatise on Physical Geography, or Cartée's Physical Geography and Atlas is *permitted* to be used.

Sect. 12. No Translations nor any Interpretation, Keys, or Orders of Construction are allowed in the school.

Sect. 13. The instructors shall pay particular attention to the penmanship of the pupils, and give constantly such instruction in Spelling, Reading, and English Grammar as they may deem necessary to make the pupils familiar with those fundamental branches of a good education.

Sect. 14. Each pupil who shall honorably complete the course of studies prescribed for this school, to the satisfaction of the Principal and the Committee, shall be entitled to receive a suitable diploma or certificate to that effect at graduation. Diploma or certificate.

Course of Studies pursued in the New York Free Academy.

The studies pursued in the Academy are classified in the following courses, which are at the option of the students, viz.:—

A full course with Ancient Languages.
A full course with Modern Languages.
A partial course, embracing any studies less than either of the full courses.

A full course of Ancient Languages comprises Latin and Greek, and in the Senior year any Modern Language at the option of the student.

The full course of Modern Languages comprises French, Spanish, and German, according to the order prescribed by the Board.

The time allotted to the study of each language is laid down in the following schedule, which exhibits the number of recitations per week for each class and the term of the Academic year:—

Ancient Course.

	Introductory.		Freshman.		Sophomore.		Junior.		Senior.	
	1st Term.	2d Term.	1st Term.	2d Term.	1st Term.	2d Term.	1st Term.	2d Term.	1st Term.	2d Term.
Latin	5	5	3	2	2	2	2	1	Latin or Greek once a week.	
Greek	–	–	2	3	3	3	3	1		
Any Modern Language at option	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	4	4

Modern Course.

	Introductory.		Freshman.		Sophomore.		Junior.		Senior.	
	1st Term.	2d Term.	1st Term.	2d Term.	1st Term.	2d Term.	1st Term.	2d Term.	1st Term.	2d Term.
French	5	5	3	2	2	2	–	–		–
Spanish	–		2	3	3	3	3	–	–	–
German	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	2	5	5

The choice of each student as to the course of studies he intends to pursue must be made in writing at the time of his admission, and registered and filed at the Academy. It must be made by the parent or guardian, or by the parent or guardian be submitted in writing to the discretion of the Faculty. It is

important that the subject be carefully considered before the selection be made, as, from considerations of advantage to the student, as well as from a proper regard for the orderly working and discipline of the Institution, when once commenced, the same couse must be pursued as long as the student remains in the Academy.

The classes are annual, and the full course of studies embraces five years, of two terms each.

The following table exhibits the full course of studies for each class and term, with the text-books used, and the number of recitations per week.

COURSE.

Introductory Class.

First Year—First Term.

	Lessons per week.
Latin - *Andrews and Stoddard's Grammar, Andrews' Reader* or French - - - - *Vannier and Robertson*	5
English Language - - *Principles of General Grammar*	1
Algebra - - - - - - *Docharty*	5
Elements of Physics - - - - - - -	2
Introduction to Natural Sciences - - - - -	2

First Year—Second Term.

Latin - - - - - - - *Cæsar* or French - *Robertson, Roemer's Polyglot, and Elem. Readers*	5
Geometry - - - - - - *Docharty*	5
Elements of Chemistry - - - - - -	2
Introduction to Natural Sciences - - - - -	2
Free-hand Linear Drawing - - - - - -	5
Oratory and Composition.	

Freshman Class.

Second Year—First Term.

Latin - - - *Virgil, and Anthon's Prose Composition*	3
Greek, *Sophocles' Grammar and Silber's Progressive Lessons in Greek*	2
or	
French - *Robertson, Roemer's Polyglot and Second Readers*	3
Spanish - - - *Ollendorff, Morales' Reader, Butler*	2
English Etymology and Philology - - *Fowler's Grammar*	1
Rhetoric - - - - - - *Day*	2
Ancient History - - - - - *Willson*	2
Moral Philosophy - - - - - *Wayland*	1
Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, Navigation - - *Docharty*	5
Descriptive Geometry, Drawing - - - -	5
Oratory and Composition.	

Second Year—Second Term.

Latin - - - *as before, and Anthon's Versification*	2
Greek - - - - - - *Owen's Reader*	3
or	
French - - - - - - - *as before*	2
Spanish - - - - *as before, and Iriarte's Fables*	3
Rhetoric - - - - - - - *Jamieson*	2
Mediæval History - - - - - *Willson*	2
Roman Antiquities and Mythology - - - -	1
Analytical Geometry, Mensuration, Surveying - *Davies*	5
Natural Science (Lecture) - - - - -	1
Drawing, Perspective, Shades and Shadows - - -	4
Oratory and Composition.	

Sophomore Class.

Third Year—First Term.

Latin - - - - - - - *Cicero*	2
Greek - - - - - - *Anabasis*	3

	Lessons per week.
or	
French - *as before, and Noel and Chapsal, instead of Robertson*	2
Spanish - - - *as before, and Quintana's Lives*	3
English Synonymes - - - - - *Graham*	2
History and Sources of the English Language - - -	1
Modern History - - - - - - *Willson*	5
Political Economy (Lecture) - - - - -	1
Differential Calculus - - - - - *Davies*	2
Free-hand Drawing, Course of Ornament - - - -	4
Physics - - - - - - - -	2
Oratory and Composition.	

Third Year—Second Term.

Latin - - - - - - - *Sallust*	2
Greek - - - - - - - *Cyropœdia*	3
or	
French - - - *Noel and Chapsal, Moliere, and Racine*	2
Spanish - - *Sales' Gram., Ascargorta, Moratin, Pizarro*	3
English Literature - - - - - *Shaw*	3
Logic - - - - - - - *Whately*	3
Intellectual Philosophy - - - - - *Mahan*	2
Integral Calculus - - - - - *Davies*	3
Natural Science (Lecture) - - - - -	1
Drawing, Architecture, and Study of the Antique and Figure -	4
Oratory and Composition.	

Junior Class.

Fourth Year—First Term.

Latin - - - - - - - *Livy*	2
Greek - - - - - - - *Iliad*	3
or	
Spanish - *Sales, Moratin, Don Quixote, Quintana's Parnaso*	3
German - - - *Glaubensklee's Grammar and Reader*	2
English Language - - - - - *Fowler*	1
Critical Readings, English - - - - -	1
Moral Philosophy - - - - - *Hickok*	3
Analytical Mechanics - - - - - *Bartlett*	5
Geology - - - - - - - -	1
Physics - - - - - - - -	2
Themes, Forensic Discussions, Original Declamations.	

Fourth Year—Second Term.

Latin - - - - - - - *Horace*	1
Greek - - - - - - - *Odyssey*	1
or	
German - - - - - - *as before*	2
English Literature - - - - - *Shaw*	2
Natural and Revealed Religion *Butler's Analogy, Mahan's Logic*	4
Inorganic Chemistry - - - - - - -	2
Acoustics and Optics - - - - - *Bartlett*	3
Spherical Astronomy - - - - - *Bartlett*	2
Lecture on Rhetoric - - - - - - -	1
Themes, Forensic Discussions, Original Declamations.	

Senior Class.

Fourth Year—First Term.

Ancient Course { Latin or Greek - *Horace, Thucydides,* 1 / A Modern Language at option - 4 }	5
or	
German - - - - - - - -	5
Organic and Practical Chemistry - - - - *as before*	4
Civil and Military Engineering - - - *Mahan, Benton*	4
Law and Politics - - - - - - *Hamilton*	2
Themes, Forensic Discussions, Original Declamations.	

Fifth Year—Second Term.

		Lessons per week.
Ancient Course	{ Latin or Greek - *Horace, Œdipus Tyrannus,* 1 The same Modern Language as before - 4 }	5
or		
German - - - - - - - -		5
Practical and Applied Chemistry - - - - *Fowne*		4
Civil and Military Engineering - - - *as before*		4
Law and Politics - - - - - *Kent, Woolsey*		2
Mineralogy - - - - - - - -		1

Themes, Forensic Discussions, Original Declamations.

Lectures and Exercises.

In addition to the recitations as laid down in the course of study, lectures are delivered on the various subjects, as follows :—

By the Professor of Moral, Intellectual, and Political Philosophy.

Lectures on the Laws of Nations and the Constitution of the United States.

By the Professor of Ancient Languages.

Lectures on the Formation and Structure of the Greek and Latin Languages, and their relation to the study of the English Language.

By the Professor of Chemistry and Physics.

Lectures on the Practical Applications of Chemistry.

By the Professor of Mixed Mathematics.

Lectures on the Popular Applications of Natural Philosophy, on Ancient and Modern Inventions, and on the most celebrated Constructions of ancient and modern times.

By the Professor of History and Belles-Lettres.

Lectures on Ancient and Modern History, and on Rhetoric.

By the Professor of English Language and Literature.

Lectures on the History of the English Language and Literature.

By the Professor of French Language and Literature.

Lectures on the History of the Formation of the French Language.

By the Professor of Spanish Language and Literature.

Lectures on the History and Structure of the Spanish Language.

By the Professor of German Language and Literature.

Lectures on the History of German Literature.

By the Professor of Drawing.

Lectures on the Principles of Design, as applied to Industry and the Fine Arts, and on the Fine Arts and their History.

By the Professor of Natural History and Physiology.

Lectures on Natural History, Anatomy, Physiology, Hygiene, Geology, Mineralogy, and Physical Geography.

By the Adjunct Professor of Philosophy.

Lectures on Political Economy.

Exercises in declamation and composition are required once a month from each student, and original declamation from the students of the Senior and Junior Classes.

Examinations.

There are two public examinations during the Academic year. The first commences on the first Monday of February, the second on the third Monday before Commencement, each continuing eight days. The examinations are conducted by the officer in charge of each study, and no student is allowed to advance to the next class without being found qualified for such advancement. If any student shall, in any of his studies, have made so little progress as not to have an average rate of at least half the maximum on the last Merit-roll, he is rated as deficient, and so recorded; and, if rated as deficient on two successive Merit-rolls, he is dismissed from the Academy.

Merit-Roll.

The Merit-roll is made up immediately after each examination. On this roll each student is ranked according to his standing in his class, indicated by the amount of merit-marks received during the term, for conduct, recitations, and examinations. The roll is divided into four categories—Highest, High, Good, and Low.

The Student who has the highest number of marks in his class ranks Highest.

All Students rank High the total of whose marks in study and conduct together equals the maximum of conduct plus nine-tenths of the maximum of study.

All Students rank Good the total of whose marks equals the maximum of conduct plus six-tenths of the maximum of study.

And all Students, the total of whose marks falls below this last sum, rank Low.

The maximum of merit in any study or exercise is ascertained by multiplying the whole number of exercises of the class during term-time by ten, which is the maximum of merit in each recitation.

The maximum of merit in any examination is ascertained by multiplying the number of recitations per week in each subject by one hundred.

The maximum of conduct is ascertained by multiplying the whole number of Academic days by ten; and the rate of conduct is ascertained by deducting from such maximum all demerit marks.

The Merit-roll is signed by the Principal, and, after being printed by the Executive Committee, is sent to the parents or guardians of every student.

Terms and Vacations.

The exercises, during term-time, are from 9 a.m. to 3 p.m. The doors are closed for roll-call at precisely 15 minutes before 9 o'clock, when all the students are to be in their seats in the Hall of the Academy, and all the officers in attendance.

There are three vacations in each Academic year, the summer vacation, from Commencement to the third Wednesday in September; the winter vacation, from the 25th day of December to the 2d day of Janury inclusive; the spring vacation, from the last day of April inclusive, one week. There are no Academic exercises on Saturday, on the day celebrated as the Anniversary of American Independence, and on Thanksgiving Day. The first Academic term commences at the end of the summer vacation, and the second at the end of the first examination.

Degrees.

The Board of Education is authorized by law to confer the usual Collegiate Degrees, on the recommendation of the Faculty. The degrees are, *Bachelor of Arts*, for those who have pursued a full couse with ancient languages; *Bachelor of Sciences*, for those who have pursued a full couse with modern languages; and the degrees of *Master of Arts* and *Master of Sciences*.

The Faculty recommend no one as a candidate for either degree whose average standing in any study of the Senior year has fallen below seven-tenths of the maximum. Each member of the graduating class is required to write a composition for oral delivery, to be sent in one week before Commencement.

Orations and dissertations written for this occasion are not to exceed seven minutes each in length, with the exception of the Valedictory and Salutatory Orations, which may be extended to 10 minutes.

A Bachelor of Arts or of Sciences, of three years standing, may be admitted to the degree of *Master of Arts* or to that of *Master of Sciences,* provided he show, to the satisfaction of the Faculty, that in the interval he has been engaged in some literary or scientific pursuit, and has sustained a good moral character; application to be made either personally or by letter, at least one month before Commencement, accompanied by an original paper on any subject, and certified under his own hand to be his own composition, written within six months before his application.

Commencement.

The Commencement of the Academy is held on the Tuesday before the third Wednesday of July in each year, at a place provided by the Executive Committee. The President of the Board of Education presides on that occasion.

The performances of the graduating class on Commencement Day are eight orations, and no less than eight nor more than 12 dissertations. Of the orations, the Valedictory is the highest honour of that nature in the gift of the Academy, and is assigned to the student who stands highest on the Merit-roll, reckoning from the beginning of the Freshman year. The Salutatory Oration is the second honour, and is given to the student who ranks second on the Merit-roll. The six remaining orations constitute the third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth honours, and are given to the students who rank from third to eighth on the Merit-roll. The dissertations are given to such students in the graduating class as particularly excel in rhetorical merit. There is also a Master's Oration, pronounced by one of the candidates for that degree, appointed by the Faculty.

After the exercises of the graduating class, the distribution of the diplomas takes place, and also that of the various prizes.

Junior Exhibition.

On the evening of the last Friday of the examination in February is held in the large Hall, or such other place as the Executive Committee on the Free Academy may designate, the exhibition of the Junior Class, at which time there is public speaking of original compositions by members of that class; they are appointed by the Faculty in November in each year from among those whose standing in the last preceding Merit-roll is not lower than "good," and who have not received demerit marks during the second term of the Sophomore, nor demerit marks during the first term of the Junior year, up to the day of appointment.

Course of Study prescribed for the Schools of New Haven.

In order to maintain a uniform course of study in the public schools of New Haven, so clearly marked out that parents, teachers, and scholars may understand it, the School Committee recommend for trial the following scheme, which is intended for pupils of average ability, between the ages of six and 13 years. It will occupy some scholars, without doubt, a longer time, and some perhaps a less period. The Committee, whilst cautioning the teachers against pushing scholars forward so rapidly as to injure their health or their mental improvement, would at the same time recommend such thoroughness of instruction, and such constant reviews and examinations, as will make it unnecessary to do over in any year the work of a previous one:—

1st year.—Average age 6–7. Reading and Spelling, First Reader. Read numbers to 100. Daily exercises in enunciation. Print on slate.

2d year.—Average age 7–8. Reading and Spelling, Second Reader. Write and read numbers to 1,000; the Roman numerals to 100; Addition table; oral instruction in Geography; writing script hand on slate; punctuation marks from cards.

3d year.—Average age 8–9. Reading, Third Reader; Spelling Book, page 52; Primary Arithmetic, to page 60; the Roman notation finished; Primary Geography through the United States; writing on Slate.

4th year.—Average age 9–10. Reading, Third and Fouth Reader; Spelling Book, page 75; Primary Arithmetic finished; Primary Geography finished; writing.

5th year.—Average age 10–11. Reading, Fourth Reader; Spelling Book, page 102; Arithmetic, the Ground Rules, Reduction, Definitions, and General Principles; Intermediate Geography to South America; Writing; Composition.

6th year.—Average age 11–12. Reading, Fifth Reader; Spelling Book finished; Arithmetic, Common and Decimal Fractions; United States Money, Compound Numbers; Intermediate Geography finished; Grammar, to Syntax; Writing; Composition.

7th year.—Average age 12–13. Reading, Fifth Reader; Spelling Book reviewed; Arithmetic—Percentage, Ratio, Proportion, Alligation; Geography reviewed; Grammar finished; History; Writing or Book-keeping; Composition.

The High School.

Candidates for admission to the High School must pass a satisfactory examination in Spelling, Reading, Writing, English Grammar, Geography, Arithmetic, and the History of the United States.

Latin Preparatory Class.

Pupils, whe;e parents desire to give them a classical education, may be admitted to the Latin Preparatory Class whenever they have thoroughly mastered the ground rules of Arithmetic, and made corresponding progress in their other studies; but no girls shall be admitted, except there are unoccupied seats not needed by boys.

Near the close of the school year the Principals shall give notice to such pupils as have made the requisite progress, that they can be admitted to the Latin Class.

D. C. Gilman,
A. W. De Forest,
John E. Earle,
} Committee on Schools.

APPENDIX C.

Mr. Superintendent Philbrick's Report and Historical Sketch of the Boston English High School, illustrating the Progress and present State of American Ideas on the Subject of "Higher "Education."

This noble institution constitutes so important a part of our system of public instruction, and it seems to me so desirable that its objects and character should be better understood and appreciated by the inhabitants of the city, that I have thought it best to devote to it a very considerable portion of the space of this Report. From the day of its establishment, this school has been one of singular excellence. Never in its history has there been a period, ever so short, when it was not as a whole admirably managed and instructed. For upwards of 40 years it has been a blessing and an ornament to the city, contributing largely to the welfare of the community, by elevating its intellectual and moral culture, and thus repaying, a hundred fold, all the cost of its support. If it were necessary to produce evidence of its value, and to vindicate the wisdom and foresight of its founders, it would be sufficient to refer to the Roll of its graduates,—those who have enjoyed the benefit of its entire

course of study,—bearing the names of so many men who have risen to positions of usefulness and eminence, not only in the various industrial and professional pursuits, but also in the public service,—municipal, state, and national.

But although we have good reason to be proud of the character which this school has sustained, and of the fruits it has produced, it is to be regretted that a larger number of the youth of the city have not availed themselves of its superior advantages. Its numbers have not increased in proportion to the growth of the city. While the population of the city has increased fourfold, and the aggregate number of pupils in the public schools has increased sevenfold, the increase of this school has been less than 33 per cent. Thus it appears that the increase of pupils in the English High School ought to have been 12 times as great as it has been in order merely to have kept pace with the growth of the city, and 21 times as great to have merely held its own in comparison with the aggregate growth of the public schools. This is truly a startling fact. It is a fact which we cannot contemplate with satisfaction It shows a virtual falling off, to a very great extent, in respect to higher education among the young men of the city, who are destined to business pursuits. It is true, no doubt, that the education received in the Grammar Schools is better than it was 30 or 40 years ago; but this education is still elementary, and is almost exclusively confined to what are called the common branches; and however well these may be taught, they can never become a substitute for that higher course of instruction which is furnished at our English High School. It seems to me, therefore, highly important that this institution should claim a greater share of the attention of this Board than it has received, in order that measures may be devised for increasing its numbers; and with a view to promote this desirable object, I propose to present some facts and suggestions respecting its history, workings, and condition, and its proper relations to other departments of our system of public education.

The first action of the School Committee respecting the establishment of the English High School took place on the 17th of June 1820. It consisted in the adoption of the following order: "*Voted*, That such of the resolutions "offered by Samuel A. Wells, as relate to the establishment of an *English* "*Classical School* in the town of Boston, be referred to a Sub-Committee of "five." The gentlemen chosen to constitute this Committee were Samuel A. Wells, Rev. John Pierpont, Rev. Nath'l L. Frothingham, Lemuel Shaw, and Benjamin Russell. Their report was submitted to the School Board on the 26th of October, and it was then voted, "That it is expedient to establish "an *English Classical School*, upon the plan stated in the Report, in the town "of Boston." At a meeting of the Board on the 9th of November, this Report "was read and unanimously accepted;" and in order to carry into effect its recommendations, the following votes were passed: "*Voted*, That "this Report, with the proceedings thereon, be printed and distributed among "the citizens of the town, and that the plan of the school therein stated be "recommended by this Committee to the people for acceptance. *Voted*, That "the Selectmen be requested to carry this vote into effect, and to call a public "meeting of the inhabitants of the town to consider and act thereon at such "time as they shall deem expedient." This Report is remarkable, not only on account of the important results which have grown out of it, but for the practical views and wise recommendations which it contains. It is so pertinent to the objects of the present report, that I must find room for the essential portions of it.

"Though the present system of public education, and the munificence with which it is supported, are highly beneficial and honourable to the town, yet, in the opinion of the Committee, it is susceptible of a greater degree of perfection and usefulness without materially augmenting the weight of the public burdens. Till recently our system occupied a middle station; it neither commenced with the rudiments of education, nor extended to the higher branches of knowlege.* This system was supported by the town at a very great expense, and to be admitted to its advantages, certain preliminary qualifications

* The Latin School has always been a part of our system of public instruction, but its special purpose is to fit boys for college.

were required at individual cost, which had the effect of excluding many children of the poor and unfortunate classes of the community from the benefits of a public education. The town saw and felt this inconsistency in the plan, and have removed the defect by providing schools, in which the children of the poor can be fitted for admission into the public seminaries.*

"The present system, in the opinion of the Committee, requires still further amendment. The studies that are pursued at the English Grammar Schools are merely elementary, and more time than is necessary is devoted to their acquisition. A scholar is admitted at seven, and is dismissed at 14 years of age; thus seven years are expended in the acquisition of a degree of knowledge, which with ordinary diligence and common capacity, may be easily and perfectly acquired in five. If, then, a boy remained the usual term, a large portion of the time will have been idly or uselessly expended, as he may have learned all that he has been taught long before its expiration. This loss of time occurs at that interesting and critical period of life when the habits and inclinations are forming by which the future character will be fixed and determined. This evil, therefore, should be removed, by enlarging the present system, not merely that the time now lost may be saved, but that those early habits of industry and application may be acquired, which are so essential in leading to a future life of virtue and usefulness.

"Nor are these the only existing evils. The mode of education now adopted, and the branches of knowledge that are taught at our English Grammar Schools are not sufficiently extensive, nor otherwise calculated to bring the powers of the mind into operation, nor to qualify a youth to fill usefully and respectably many of those stations, both public and private, in which he may be placed. *A parent who wishes to give a child an education that shall fit him for active life, and shall serve as a foundation for eminence in his profession, whether mercantile or mechanical, is under the necessity of giving him a different education from any which our Public Schools can now furnish.* Hence many children are separated from their parents and sent to private academies in this vicinity, to acquire that instruction which cannot be obtained at the public seminaries; thus, many parents who contribute largely to the support of these institutions, are subjected to heavy expenses for the same object in other towns.

"The Committee, for these and many other weighty considerations that might be offered, and in order to render the present system of public education more nearly perfect, are of opinion, that an additional school is required. They, therefore, recommend the founding of a Seminary to be called the English Classical School, and submit the following as a general outline of a plan for its organization and of the course of studies to be pursued.

"1. That the Term for pursuing the course of studies proposed be three years.

"2. That the school be divided into three classes, and one year be assigned to the studies of each class.

"3. That the age of admission be not less than 12 years.

"4. That the school be for boys exclusively.

"5. That candidates for admission be proposed on a given day annually; but scholars, with suitable qualifications, may be admitted at any intermediate time to an advanced standing.

"6. That candidates for admission shall be subject to a strict examination, in such manner as the School Committee may direct, to ascertain their qualifications according to the rules.

"7. That it be required of every candidate to qualify himself for admission, that he be well acquainted with reading, writing, English grammar in all its branches, and arithmetic, as far as simple proportion.

"8. That it be required of the Masters and Ushers, as a necessary qualification, that they shall have been regularly educated at some University.

"The studies of the First Class (lowest class) to be as follows: Composition; Reading from the most approved authors; Exercises in Criticism, comprising Critical Analysis of the Language, Grammar, and Style of the best English Authors, their errors and beauties; Declamation; Geography; Arithmetic, continued; Algebra.

"The studies of the Second Class—Composition; Reading; Exercise in

* The establishment of the Primary Schools is alluded to, which took place in 1818. Like the Grammar Schools, they were designed for the children of all classes and not merely for the poor.

Criticism; Declamation; Algebra, continued; Ancient and Modern History and Chronology; Logic; Geometry; Plane Trigonometry, and its application to Mensuration of heights and distances; Navigation; Surveying; Mensuration of Superficies and Solids; Forensic Discussions.

"The studies of the Third Class—Composition; Exercises in Criticism; Declamation; Mathematics; Logic, History; particularly that of the United States, continued; Natural Philosophy, including Astronomy; Moral and Political Philosophy."

The Committee gave it as their opinion that the management and instruction of the proposed seminary would require the services of a master, submaster, and two ushers, whose salaries would amount to four thousand dollars.

This document marks an era in the educational history of our city. Its large views, noble sentiments, and wise recommendations, could only have come from superior men,—such men as composed the Committee which drafted it. The chairman was a merchant of the highest respectability and intelligence; the clerical profession was represented by two of its brightest ornaments; the legal profession, by the late distinguished Chief Justice of the Commonwealth; and the other member was one of the first Journalists of his day in this country. The plan of the proposed institution was so well matured by this wise and learned Committee, that, as reference to our present Regulations will prove, it has not been found necessary, to this day, to change it in any essential particular.

In accordance with the request of the School Committee, as expressed in one of the votes above quoted, the Selectmen notified the freeholders and other inhabitants of the Town of Boston, qualified to vote in town affairs, "to assemble in Faneuil Hall on the 15th of January 1821, to see (among other things) "if the town will establish an *English Classical School*, upon a plan recommended by the School Committee." It appears on the record of this meeting that "after debate the plan was nearly unanimously adopted, only "three voting in the negative." The promptness and unanimity of this action is highly creditable to the intelligence and liberality of the voters of the town at that time, especially when it is considered that the estimated annual expense of the proposed school exceeded 10 per cent. of the amount expended for the support of all the Public Schools then existing in the city,—a proportion equivalent to an appropriation, at this time, of an annual expenditure of fifty thousand dollars for the support of a new educational institution.

The provision for philosophical apparatus was extremely liberal for the times, the sum of $2,500 having been appropriated for this purpose, which was subsequently increased to $3,000. At that time, there was not probably in all the seminaries of learning in the State, excepting the colleges, so much apparatus as this sum would purchase.

The School was opened in the spring of 1821, in the upper story of the Derne Street Grammar Schoolhouse. In 1824 it was removed to the new building on Pinckney Street, a dedicatory address being delivered on the occasion by Hon. Josiah Quincy, senior, who was Mayor, and Chairman of the School Committee. It was again removed in 1843 to the building which it now occupies in Bedford Street, in connexion with the Latin School. This edifice has recently been enlarged by the addition of a story, so that now the accomodations which it affords for either school are six schoolrooms, three smaller rooms, and a spacious hall.

The original requirements for admission were as follows:—

1. That the candidate be not less than 12 years of age.

2. That the candidates shall be admitted only at the beginning of the school year, *i. e.* after the summer vacation.

3. That the candidates shall produce from the masters of the schools last attended by them certificates of good moral character, and presumed qualifications for admission to the school.

4. That the candidate, "in order to be admitted shall be found well versed "in Reading, Writing, English Grammer, Geography, and Arithmetic as far "as Proportion, including a general view of Vulgar and Decimal Fractions."

The requirements in respect to age, certificates, and the time of admission, have never been changed since the organization of the school.

In 1829, a modification was made in the qualifications for admission, by

providing that the candidate "shall be found to have made satisfactory pro-
"gress," instead of "shall be found well versed in," and substituting for the former requirements in Arithmetic, "Colburn's First Lessons in Arithmetic, "and Sequel." In 1836, "Spelling" was added to the requirements for admission, and instead of prescribing Colburn's works in Arithmetic for examination, simply "Arithmetic" is prescribed; and it was provided that "a "thorough knowledge of the precribed studies shall be indispensable to admis-
"sion."

No further change was made in the terms of admission till 1852, when a movement was made in consequence of the supposed advancement of the standard in the Grammar Schools, to raise the standard of qualifications for admission to this school. It was therefore provided that candidates should "pass a satisfactory examination" in the branches previously required, with the addition of the History of the United States; and the following additional regulation was adopted:—

"It shall be the duty of the Sub-Committee of the English High School to be present at the annual examination of candidates for admission; but said examination shall be conducted by the instructors from written questions in all the branches previously prepared, and subject to the approval of the Committee. The examination shall be strict, and a thorough knowledge of the required studies shall be indispensable to admission."

During the preceding 30 years it had been simply made the duty of the master of the school to examine the candidates, without any provision as to the manner of conducting it, though in point of fact the examination had been conducted mainly, or wholly, in writing, for several years previous to the adoption of this rule, this mode being found not only the fairest, but necessary to protect the Principal against charges of partiality.

Since 1852, no further change has been made in the terms of admission, with the exception of a provision which was adopted in 1853, and repealed in 1855, permitting candidates who were unsuccessful at the first examination in July, to be examined again during the week previous to the beginning of the fall term; and requiring the Sub-Committee "to make a full report of both "examinations and the results of each."

The mode in which candidates for admission are examined is as follows:—

Questions in arithmetic, grammar, geography, and history, also a list of words for spelling, are prepared by the teachers and submitted to the Committee for approval. Being altered, if thought advisable, and approved, they are, except the words for spelling, printed on large and good paper, with suitable blank spaces on which the candidate is to write his work.

In accordance with notice published in the newspapers, the boys assemble at the schoolhouse, at 8 o'clock, a.m., on the day of examination. They are placed in three or four different rooms, and the candidates from different schools are called to the teacher's desk, where their recommendations are examined. Then, their names, the names of their parents or guardians, places of residence, the schools from which they come, and their ages, are recorded.

They are next assembled in the hall, and, having been counted, each receives a number upon a piece of paper drawn out by lot. His number is the only name by which he is known, until he is called up for admission or rejection. The applicants are then divided into four nearly equal portions, and placed in four separate rooms. One of the sets of questions, with pens and ink, is distributed to each division, all the divisions having the same set at the same time. Each boy writes his number upon the paper and proceeds to his work. The time allowed for a set of questions varies from one hour to two hours or more, according to the amount of labour, although one hour for any department is deemed sufficient for a pupil thoroughly prepared. The papers are then taken from all, and another set placed before them, and so on until the whole four are finished. Subsequently the boys are examined in reading and spelling, the words in the latter being written by them.

The papers are next examined, and the proper estimate assigned in each branch. The value of each question has been previously fixed, and the total value of any one of the printed sets is one hundred, so that the correct answers give immediately the per cent.

All who have an average of 75 per cent. or more are marked *admitted*. They are called up, their names ascertained, and they receive certificates of admis-

sion. Others receiving less than 75 and more than 50 per cent., unless quite deficient in some one branch, are admitted in the same way.

Others having a less average are questioned as to their previous advantages and pursuits, and, if circumstances seem to indicate that they may succeed, they are *admitted on trial*. For example, if one has been principally engaged in the study of the classics, this is a favourable circumstance, and offsets, in a degree, his deficiencies. These last, after a trial of one quarter, are required to leave the school, if it becomes evident that they cannot succeed; and these are almost without exception the only candidates whose names and circumstances are known before a decision has been made with regard to their admission.

The outline of the *course of study* proposed for this school by the Committee who recommended its establishment, has already been quoted. The earliest regular programme of the studies prescribed which I have been able to find, is dated December 5, 1823. For the sake of comparison with the present course it is here introduced.

"Class 3 (lowest). No. 1. Intellectual and Written Arithmetic, by Colburn and Lacroix. 2. Ancient and modern Geography, by Worcester. 3. General History, by Tyler; History of the United States, by Grimshaw. 4. Elements of Arts and Sciences, by Blair. 5. Reading, Grammar, and Declamation. 6. Book-Keeping, by Single and Double Entry. 7. Sacred Geography.

"Class 2. Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, continued. 8. Algebra, by dictation . . . . and Euler. 9. Rhetoric and Composition . . . . Blair's Lect. Abridg. 10. Geometry, by Legendre. 11. Natural Philosophy. 12. Natural Theology, by Paley.

"Class 1. Nos. 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, continued. 13. Chronology. 14. Moral Philosophy, by Paley. 15. Forensics. 16. Criticisms on English Authors. 17. Practical Mathematics, comprehending Navigation, Surveying, Mensuration, Astronomical Calculations, &c. together with the construction and use of Mathematical Instruments. 20. A course of Experimental Lectures on the various branches of Natural Philosophy. 21. Evidences of Christianity, by Paley."

This programme we find slightly modified in the copy of the Regulations printed in 1827, the Written Arithmetic by Colburn being substituted for that of Lacroix. Goodrich's History of the United States, for Grimshaw's; and the Constitution of the United States for the Elements of Arts and Sciences, by Blair.

And the following studies were permitted in the first class, if the master should think proper to introduce them: Smellie's Philosophy of Natural History, chemistry, intellectual philosophy, linear drawing, and logic. Writing to be taught in all the classes.

The study of the French language was introduced in 1832, though it is not mentioned in the printed programme until 1836.

The next change appears in the Regulations for 1833,—composition being added to the studies of the third class, book-keeping transferred from the second class to the third, and algebra from the third to the second, and the following studies stricken out: from the third class, sacred geography; from the second rhetoric; and from the first chronology, forensics, and criticisms of English authors.

In the Regulations for 1836, we find that Blair's Rhetoric is restored, elements of astronomy introduced, and the *permitted* studies are disposed of by omitting Smellie's Natural History, and transferring the rest to the *required* list, viz.: linear drawing, logic, and intellectual philosophy. As the programme, thus modified, remained without change till 1852, it is here inserted in full:—

"The course of study and instruction in this school is the following:—

"No. 1. Reviews of the Preparatory Studies in the text-books, authorized to be used in the Grammar and Writing Schools. 2. Ancient Geography (Worcester's). 3. Worcester's General History, and History of the United States. 4. Colburn's or Bailey's Algebra. 5. Legendre's Geometry. 6. Book-keeping. 7. Blair's Rhetoric. 8. Paley's Moral Philosophy. 9. Chemistry. 10. Trigonometry, with its application to Surveying, Navigation, Mensuration, Astronomical Calculations, &c. 11. Constitution of the United States. 12. Natural Philosophy. 13. Linear Drawing. 14. Paley's Natural Theology.

15. Paley's Evidences of Christianity. 16. Elements of Astronomy. 17. Logic. 18. Natural Philosophy.

"The several divisions shall also receive instruction in Spelling, Reading, Writing, English Grammar, Declamation, Composition, and the French language."

A period of sixteen years having elapsed without any modification of the above programme, in 1852 the following changes were introduced :—

The History of the United States was omitted from the course, and at the same time, as already stated, added to the studies required for admission; drawing was required in all the classes; Paley's Evidences was restricted to a Monday morning lesson; Political Economy and Cleveland's Compend of English Literature were introduced, and the Spanish language permitted in the first class, in addition to the French.

Up to this time pupils had been permitted to remain in the school only three years, but now the limit was fixed at four years, provision being made for giving instruction in an advanced course to such pupils as might desire to continue in the school another year after completing the regular course of three years. In this arrangement, astronomy, intellectual philosophy, logic, and chemistry were transferred from the regular to the advanced course.

The course of study as then revised has remained unchanged, with the exception of the addition, in 1857, of permission to use, in the first class, Warren's Treatise on Physical Geography, or Cartée's Physical Geography and Atlas.

Having thus exhibited the modifications in the course of study prescribed for the school from its organization to the present time, I here introduce, for convenience of comparison, the programme as it now stands in the Regulations.

"The course of study and instruction in this school shall be as follows :—

"Class III. 1. Review of preparatory studies, using the text-books authorized in the Grammar Schools of the city. 2. Ancient Geography. 3. Worcester's General History. 4. Sherwin's Algebra. 5. French Language. 6. Drawing.

"Class II. 1. Sherwin's Algebra, continued. 2. French Language, continued. 3. Drawing, continued. 4. Legendre's Geometry. 5. Book-keeping. 6. Blair's Rhetoric. 7. Constitution of the United States. 8. Trigonometry, with its applications to Surveying, Navigation, Mensuration, Astronomical Calculations, &c. 9. Paley's Evidences of Christianity—a Monday morning lesson.

"Class I. 1. Trigonometry, with its applications, &c., continued. 2. Paley's Evidences, continued—a Monday morning lesson. 3. Drawing, continued. 4. Astronomy. 5. Natural Philosophy. 6. Moral Philosophy. 7. Political Economy. 8. Natural Theology. 9. Shaw's Lectures on English Literature. 10. French, continued,—or the Spanish Language may be commenced by such pupils as in the judgment of the Master have acquired a competent knowledge of the French. Warren's Treatise on Physical Geography, or Cartée's Physical Geography and Atlas, is *permitted* to be used.

"For the pupils who remain at the school the fourth year, the course of studies shall be as follows :—

"1. Astronomy. 2. Intellectual Philosophy. 3. Logic. 4. Spanish. 5. Geology. 6. Chemistry. 7. Mechanics, Engineering, and the higher Mathematics, with some option.

"The several classes shall also have exercises in English Composition and Declamation. The instructors shall pay particular attention to the penmanship of the pupils, and give constantly such attention to Spelling, Reading, and English Grammar as they may deem necessary to make the pupils familiar with these fundamental branches of a good education."

By comparing the present programme with the earliest one, it appears that nearly all the original subjects of instruction have been retained. Sacred Geography seems to be the only one which has wholly disappeared. Three or four more of the titles comprised in the first programme have been dropped, though the subjects which they designate are embraced under other heads in the present programme. The principal branches which have been added to the regular course are the French Language, Drawing, the Constitution of the United States, and Astronomy. Of these added studies, French has been made by far the most prominent, being taught during the whole course. Drawing is pursued by the two upper classes. The Constitution is thoroughly taught, and so is Astronomy.

The *order* of the studies, it will be observed, has been considerably modified, and, without question, for the better. In the original plan, the studies of the third or lowest class were arranged especially with a view to accommodate those pupils who could devote only one year to the High School course, but experience led to the conclusion that it was best for the interests of the school, on the whole, to make the instruction of the first year conform more precisely to the requirements of a systematic course of three years. The present arrangement of the branches is, in the main, adapted both to the natural order of development in the course of the sciences, and to the natural order of development in the human powers, the two chief considerations in the ordering of every plan of systematic education.

But the teacher, more than all other means and appliances, determines the character of the school. To insure the best instruction three conditions are indispensable; first, teachers who possess the requisite qualification; second, a sufficient number of teachers; and third, changes of teachers should be infrequent. It has evidently been the aim of the School Board to fulfil these conditions in respect to this school. From its establishment it has been a standing rule that its instructors shall be graduates of some respectable college. This has proved a very salutary provision, and it is hoped that it will never be abolished. But it has been the policy of the Board, not only to require high qualifications in the teachers of this school, but to pay such salaries as will secure and retain the best teachers. In the earlier history of the school, however, the salary paid the ushers was insufficient, and hence the services of some excellent teachers were lost. But this deficiency was at length supplied. The result has been that during the last 20 years the changes in teachers have been few. During that period not one teacher has resigned his place to engage in any other profession.

The following are the several successive rules which have existed respecting the number and grades of teachers :—

1821–28. "For every accession of forty pupils to the whole number in this school, an additional assistant shall be allowed the master, that is, there shall be at least one instructor for every forty pupils."

1828–33. "A master, a sub-master, and so many assistants as shall give one instructor to every forty pupils, provided that no additional assistant be obtained for an increase less than twenty."

1833–49. "A master, a sub-master, and so many assistants as shall give one instructor to every thirty-five pupils, provided that no additional assistant be obtained for any increase less than twenty-one."

1849–53. "A master, two sub-masters, and as many ushers as shall give one instructor to every thirty-five pupils, but no additional usher shall be allowed for any increase less than twenty-one."

1853–64. "The same as the preceding, except that no additional instructor is allowed for any less number than thirty-five."

Since 1852, the provision has existed permitting the Sub-Committee "to "furnish the master with an assistant whose salary shall not exceed that of an "usher, when the number of pupils remaining in the school through the "fourth year shall in their judgment make it necessary."

From 1832 to 1840 a special teacher of the French language was provided, and also, for a short time, in 1854. Special teachers of writing were also employed at different times in the early years of the school.

For several years a teacher of drawing has been employed, who teaches this branch in two upper classes, giving to each class two hours each week.

Since 1857, the salaries of the instructors have been as follows :—

Master, $2,400; sub-masters, $1,600; and ushers, $1,200, with an increase of $100 a year to each grade, for four years. For the present year, an additional increase of $200 has been added to the salary of each grade.

The organization of this school is of that description which is called the *class* system, in distinction from that which is denominated the *departmental* system. For 10 or 15 years past, the pupils have occupied five schoolrooms, the whole school being assembled in the hall only on public occasions. In one of these rooms the Principal has the immediate charge of the first or highest class, which he instructs in all the branches of study prescribed for the last year of the course, except drawing. Each of the two sub-masters has, in a separate room, a half of the middle class, which he instructs in all the

studies of the second year. In like manner the third, or lowest class, is divided between the two ushers. The plan of organization is called the *class* system, because each teacher, under the general direction and control of the Principal, has the government and instruction of a class, or a division of a class, for a certain period—in this case for a year,—giving instruction in all the branches which are studied by the pupils during that period. The departmental system requires a very different management. Its type is found in our colleges, where each teacher instructs in a single branch, or in a group of kindred branches. The pupils are under the immediate government of the Principal. They are seated in a common study-room, where they remain when not engaged in recitation. From this room they are sent to several recitation rooms during the day, where they receive instruction from the teachers of the several departments of the course.

Our Latin School is conducted on the class system, while the Girls' High and Normal School combines, to some extent, both the class and departmental systems. The principal High Schools of Europe, and some of the most important of those in this country, are conducted on the departmental plan. But for such an institution as our English High School, I think the class system preferable. It has been fairly tested here for the period of upwards of forty years, and the results have been entirely satisfactory.

We have seen in what manner and for what objects the English High School was founded, and what provisions have been made from time to time for its accommodation, and for the instruction of its pupils. Let us now turn to the record of attendance, and see how many of the young men of the city have enjoyed the superior advantages which it has afforded. It would be interesting to know precisely how many pupils have been admitted, and how many have remained one year, two years, and three years, respectively. But these items I am not now able to present. There is, however, a still more important element of information respecting the attendance. It is the average whole number belonging, for each year. Though it is not in my power to exhibit this with perfect exactness, I give, in the following table, what is substantially the same thing, namely, the whole number belonging in the month of February in each year, beginning with the third year after the founding of the School.

WHOLE NUMBER BELONGING IN THE MONTH OF FEBRUARY, OF EACH YEAR, FROM 1824 to 1864.

Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.
1824	121	1838	115	1852	176
1825	121	1839	104	1853	170
1826	128	1840	105	1854	159
1827	132	1841	120	1855	162
1828	141	1842	150	1856	152
1829	114	1843	170	1857	144
1830	129	1844	149	1858	160
1831	134	1845	152	1859	156
1832	111	1846	143	1860	169
1833	112	1847	141	1861	171
1834	128	1848	156	1862	175
1835	125	1849	183	1863	174
1836	131	1850	193	1864	174
1837	115	1851	195		

Averaging the above numbers for each decade, we find the following result :—

From 1825 to 1834, average number 125.
„ 1835 to 1844, „ „ 138.
„ 1844 to 1855, „ „ 166.
„ 1855 to 1864, „ „ 163.

Thus it appears that the highest average, 166, is only 41 more than the lowest, 125, an increase of less than 33 per cent., and the average number for the last ten years is only about 30 per cent. higher than that of the first ten

years. The average number belonging during the whole period since the establishment of the school, is little less than 150.

In connexion with the statistics of attendance, it is important to know how many pupils have completed the prescribed course, and graduated from the school. This item is shown in the table below.

NUMBER OF GRADUATES EACH YEAR SINCE THE FOUNDING OF THE SCHOOL.

Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.
1821	—	1836	15	1851	32
1822	—	1837	13	1852	22
1823	—	1838	15	1853	29
1824	15	1839	17	1854	26
1825	28	1840	16	1855	27
1826	12	1841	15	1856	24
1827	17	1842	24	1857	23
1828	—	1843	22	1858	27
1829	18	1844	23	1859	17
1830	17	1845	24	1860	29
1831	9	1846	17	1861	25
1832	12	1847	20	1862	29
1833	14	1848	23	1863	34
1834	18	1849	20	1864	17
1835	11	1850	33		

The whole number of graduates is 829, and the average number per year has been about 20.

The following is the average number of graduates for each of the four decades since the establishment of the school:—

From 1825 to 1834, average number 16.0
„ 1835 to 1844, „ „ 17.1
„ 1845 to 1854, „ „ 24.4
„ 1855 to 1864, „ „ 25.4

It appears from the above, that, for the first twenty years, the average number of graduates was about 16½ a year, and for the last 20 years, about 25. The average number of graduates for the last 10 years is about 50 per cent. above that for the first 10 years.

In order to appreciate fully the value and importance of such an institution as the English High School, it is necessary to consider its proper place in a complete system of public instruction. A regular and complete system of State or National education comprises three general departments of instruction, namely *elementary*, *secondary*, and *superior*. Elementary education may properly be considered as including those branches which our public statutes require to be taught in the common schools in every town in the commonwealth, and it is that department for which our Primary and Grammar Schools are intended. *Superior* education includes all the highest courses of special, scientific, and literary instruction, which are designed to fit students for the educated professions. All special or professional schools in which the student's career is terminated, belong to this department. These schools are of two general classes, those qualifying for entrance to the learned professions, so denominated by custom, and those preparing for other professions, requiring for their successful pursuit a very considerable extent of special scientific knowledge. The universities constitute the first class of these special schools, and polytechnic institutions the second. To the latter belong schools of arts, of manufactures and commerce, trades institutes, special schools of architecture, engineering, and mining, and military, naval, and normal schools.

Secondary education occupies the intermediate place between elementary and superior instruction, following those branches which are instrumental and preparatory to the pursuit of knowledge, and preceding the special studies which bear more or less upon the occupation of the individual in future life. This department is of two kinds, corresponding with the two divisions of superior education indicated above,—first as preparatory to the universities, or special

schools in which students are educated for the professions usually designated as learned; and second, as preparatory to the polytechnic institutions, or special schools in which students are trained for the higher practical occupations which are rising rapidly into, or have taken their place in, the rank of the learned professions. Secondary education of the first kind is commenced in our Latin School and completed in the college. This is the course for the student who is destined to the profession of law, medicine, or divinity, or who aspires to the highest grade of intellectual culture as a scholar and man of letters. The other branch of secondary education is provided for in our English High School. The course here is adapted to the wants of the students who are destined to commercial occupations, or those industrial professions which require a systematic training in applied science, including a thorough knowledge of scientific laws and principles, and a large general cultivation united with habits of close observation and exact reasoning. While it affords a good practical education of itself, it furnishes at the same time the necessary preparation for the highest special instruction which is requisite for the analytical and practical chemist, the builder and architect, the mining, civil, and mechanical engineer, the geologist, the astronomer, the naturalist, and the man of scientific culture.

A new importance has been given to this school, and the scope of its usefulness has been greatly enlarged, by the establishment in our city of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, an institution designed to furnish that superior education for which the High School course is such an admirable preparation. This institution when fully developed will sustain a relation to the English High School similar to that which the university sustains to the Latin School.

In this institution provision has been made for a department to be called a *School of Industrial Science and Art,* in which regular courses of instruction are to be given, by lectures and other teachings, in the various branches of the applied sciences and arts, and where persons destined for any of the industrial pursuits may, at small expense, secure such training and instruction as will enable them to bring to their profession the increased efficiency due to enlarged views and a sure knowledge of fundamental principles, together with adequate practice in observation and experiments, and in the delineation of objects, processes, and machinery.

Although the Institute of Technology is a State institution, the municipal authorities having appropriated no funds towards its establishment, and having no voice in its management, yet in view of the great advantages which the industrial interests and practical education of the city must ultimately derive from it, bringing as it does to the very doors of our citizens, at small expense, those means and opportunities for training in industrial science which our youth have heretofore been able to secure only at great cost in foreign countries, and considering the important relation which it sustains to our High School; it seems proper to present in this connection a very brief summary of its scope and plan, for the information of those parents who may wish to educate their sons for the successful pursuit of the useful arts.

The following paragraphs, exhibiting a general view of the plan of instruction in this Institute, are quoted from a very able pamphlet on the subject, by Professor William B. Rogers, the President of the institution.

"In arranging the plan of instruction for the School of Industrial Science and Art, provision is made for two classes of persons,—those who may be expected to resort to the lecture-rooms and school of design for such useful knowledge as they can acquire without methodical study and in hours not occupied by business; and those who enter the institution with the view of a progressive, systematic training in one or more branches of applied science, and who have the preliminary knowledge as well as time for the prosecution of its studies.

"In the former of these divisions, that of general and more popular instruction, the teaching will be conducted by means of lectures alone, except in the drawing-school, and in mathematical subjects requiring more familiar modes of exposition. As it is the purpose, in these courses, to open the halls of the Institute as widely as possible to those who desire to profit by such teachings, students will be admitted to the courses on general and applied science, and on drawing, without a preliminary examination, and subject only

to such conditions and restraints as are usual in public lectures, or as may be found best fitted to make them useful and interesting.

"In the second division of the School, that of systematic and professional instruction, the student, while attending lectures on the several branches, will have the benefit of laboratory exercises in manipulation and analysis; of continued practice in the kinds of drawing appropriate to his studies; and of such prolonged and thorough training in the class-room, and by examinations and other exercises, as will give him a ready command over the problems with which, as a mechanician, engineer, builder, practical chemist, or scientific miner, he may be called upon to deal.

"General or Popular Course.

"This department of the School is designed to embrace lectures in Elementary Mathematics, in Physics and Mechanics, in Chemistry, in Geology and Mining, and in Botany and Zoology; especial regard being had in each case to the facts and scientific principles which are of leading importance in connexion with the useful arts.

"These lectures will be grouped into more or less extended courses, as may be found expedient; and, besides, the ordinary methodical teachings will have for their object to make known new facts and discoveries in the applied sciences as they are brought to light, as well with a view of stimulating invention as of giving to the public the early benefit of important additions to our industrial knowledge.

"In the same department will be included a fully equipped Drawing-school, where, in addition to systematic exercises in elementary and free-hand drawing, instruction will be given in artistic design and modelling, as applied to manufactures, architecture, and decoration. It is expected that the drawing-school of the Lowell Institute will be brought into connexion with the School of Industrial Science in such manner as to afford to the students of the latter the free benefit of its instructions; and that the subjects above referred to will mostly, if not wholly, come within its new and enlarged plan of operations.

"These courses of instruction will be given chiefly in the evening, and will be open to both sexes. From the variety of practical subjects embraced in them, and the convenience of the hour, it is expected that they will be largely attended by persons engaged in mechanical, manufacturing, and mercantile pursuits, by teachers and students in the Normal and other schools, as well as by others whose taste and leisure lead them to avail themselves of such instruction.

"Special and Professional Instruction.

"This department of the school is intended,—

"*First*, For such students, as, by a full course of scientific studies and practical exercises, seek to qualify themselves for the professions of the mechanical engineer, the civil engineer, the builder and architect, the practical chemist, and the engineer of mines. And,—

"*Second*, For those who aim simply to secure a training in some one or more of the branches of applied science,—such as descriptive geometry applied to construction, perspective, &c.; chemical analysis; machinery and motive powers; general physics and chemistry, with manipulations; geology and mining; navigation and nautical astronomy; metallurgy of iron, copper, &c.

"The entire series of instructions, arranged in reference to the above-named professional divisions, offers to the student five courses having more or less in common, viz:—

1. A Course on Mechanical Construction and Engineering.
2. „ „ Civil and Topographical Engineering.
3. „ „ Building and Architecture.
4. „ „ Practical and Technical Chemistry.
5. „ „ Practical Geology and Mining.

"The studies of each of these divisions are arranged so as to extend over a period of four years, including the first or introductory course; but, as students will be permitted to enter any of the advanced classes for which they are prepared, they will, in many cases, be able to complete the prescribed course in three or even less than three years.

"For the first two years, the studies and exercises will be the same for all the regular students; each thus obtaining such an acquaintance with the whole field of practical science as is needed for a complete and satisfactory study of either of its professional departments."

Such in general is the design and scope of this *School of Industrial Science*, which opens its doors to the young men who, after passing through our English High School, may desire to fit themselves for one of the practical professions to which reference has been made, or "to secure a scientific prepara-
"tion for special industrial pursuits, such as the direction of mills, machine
"shops, railroads, mines, chemical works, glass, pottery, and paper manufac-
"tures, and of dyeing, print, and gas works, and for the practice of navigation,
"and surveying, of telegraphy, photography, and electrotyping, and the
"various other arts having their foundations in the exact sciences."

From the survey of the High School which has now been presented, it appears that this institution originated in a manifest educational want of the community, that it has been conducted with ability and success, and that it has proved a source of great usefulness to our citizens, though its advantages have not been enjoyed to the extent which the interests of education have required. The object I have had in view in what I have now said concerning it, has been to prepare the way for a thorough and radical reform in this particular. The number of pupils in this school should be doubled in less than three years from this time. If my voice could reach the ears of all parents in the city, I would say to them, If you intend your sons for a college course send them to the Latin School, and send them early, as soon as they are 12 years of age, at least; but if you design them for business life, by all means send them to the English High School, and see that they complete the course. To those of limited means, I would say in the words of Edward Everett, "Save, stint, spare, scrape, do anything but steal," to accomplish this desirable object for your sons. I lately inquired of a successful business man who was graduated at this school what he thought of the value of the course to himself. His prompt reply was "I would not take twenty-five thousand
"dollars for what I got there."

The supply of pupils must come from our Grammar Schools, and these schools should be so managed and instructed, and the course of study should be so ordered, and the examinations of the Committees should be so conducted, as to make it possible for every boy of fair capacity, who attends regularly, to go to the High School, if his parents desire it, at the age of 14 years. "Would you then," I am asked, "have all the Grammar Schools kept merely
"to fit boys for the High School?" Not at all; but I affirm in reply this proposition, *The best instruction you can give a boy in a Grammar School till he is fourteen years old is precisely the best preparation for his admission to the High School.* If this is not true, then the conditions of admission should be altered to meet this requirement.

We ought to send each year to the High School not less than *one hundred and fifty pupils*, whose average age shall not much exceed fourteen years. To do this would require only an average of about *twelve* from each Grammar School. Probably some of the Grammar Schools ought not to be expected to send half this number; but then there are other schools which should send more than twice the number.

Of the hundred and fifty admitted each year, if fifty should leave at the end of the first year, and fifty at the end of the second year, and fifty complete the course, this would make the whole number in the school three hundred. This number could be accommodated in the building as now arranged, giving about forty-two to each class-room, and fifty to the hall, and requiring the employment of two additional teachers, one for a class room, and one to assist the Principal in the first class, and take charge of it while he is engaged in examining the lower classes and attending to the general business of the school.

As an encouragement to the pupils of this school to complete the prescribed course, about two years ago provision was made by the Board for granting a diploma to such of the graduates as shall pass a satisfactory examination in all the required branches of the first class. This diploma was given to the graduates of 1863 and 1864. It is fully understood that this diploma is not to be granted as a matter of course to all pupils who remain at the school three

years. It is the purpose of the Committee and the Principal to bestow it only upon those who come up to the required standard of scholarship.

As a further means of encouraging higher education, I would recommend the founding, by the School Board, of ten *scholarships*, providing for the payment of the tuition of that number of the most meritorious of the graduates of the English High School, who may wish to avail themselves of the advantages of the course at the School of the Institute of Technology.

Respectfully submitted by

JOHN D. PHILBRICK,

September, 1864. *Superintendent of Public Schools.*

APPENDIX D.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS set at—

1. The Boys' Central High School, Philadelphia.
2. The Girls' High School, Providence.
3. To Candidates for Admission to the High Schools, Providence.

QUESTIONS of EXAMINATION set at the Boys' CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA.

The course is four years, each year being divided into two terms. The students are arranged in eight divisions, corresponding to the terms of the full course, indicated by the letters of the alphabet, from A to H respectively.

DIVISION A.

Logic.

1. What is meant by an illicit process? Give an example.
2. What is figure? Give the forms of the four figures.
3. Why can we prove only negatives by the second figure?
4. Give in tabular form all the moods which can be made with O, as a major premiss, and mark those which violate some logical rule or principle.
5. Construct a syllogism in *Felapton?*
6. Reduce said syllogism to first figure by direct reduction.
7. Reduce said syllogism by indirect reduction.
8. How do we frame a destructive conditional syllogism?
9. Frame a simple constructive dilemma.
10. Name three fallacies which grow out of a false or undue assumption of premisses.

DIVISION B.

Logic.

1. Define the following terms: Syllogism, major term, minor term, copula.
2. State the *dictum de omni et nullo*, by the use of ordinary symbols.
3. Explain how the translation of the dictum of Aristotle applies to the first branch of the symbolic *de omni*, as stated in the second question.
4. What is a concrete term? Give an example.
5. What is the difference between a property and an accident?
6. Why do we consider the use of a common term, as either species, genus, differentia, &c. to be a relative use?
7. In what form is a definition usually put? Is this strictly correct?
8. Give two elliptical sentences of our ordinary speech, and then express them in simple logical form.
9. What is meant by the distribution of a term? What propositions distribute the subject, and what the predicate?
10. What is meant by an illicit process of the minor? Give an example.

DIVISION C.

Rhetoric.

1. What must determine how far a hyperbole may be carried without overstretching it?

2. What are the three degrees of personification? Give an example of each.
3. Name two passionate figures, and two of a cool nature.
4. What authors does Blair mention as remarkable for conciseness?
5. Name the different styles considered with regard to their degree of ornament.
6. What are the characteristics of the Vehement style?
7. What should be the characteristics of an introductory sentence?
8. What are the general characteristics of Dean Swift's style?
9 and 10. Give Blair's criticism on the following sentence:—It is plain that the Latin tongue, in its purity, was never in this island; towards the conquest of which few or no attempts were made till the time of Claudius; neither was that language vulgar in Britain as it is known to have been in Gaul and Spain.

Division D.

Rhetoric.

1. Give the rules for preserving the unity of sentences.
2. Define criticism. As generally used, to what is it confined?
3. What is invention? Upon what does its value depend?
4. Give an example of a simple proposition and five successive amplifications.
5. Compose three sentences, illustrating the three degrees of personification.
6. What is a paraphrase? Give an example.
7. In what does description consist? For what does it afford a wide scope?
8. What should be the style of official letters, and of letters of friendship?
9. Explain the difference between tales, novels, and romances.
10. What is Iambic verse? Give an example.

Division E.

Rhetoric.

1. What is Apocope? Give an example,
2. What is Metonymy? Give an example.
3. Give three of the essentials to beauty in figures.
4. Name all the varieties of style arising from the amount of ornament employed.
5. What quality of a good style is deficient in the following sentence? Show how.—The wisest princes need not think it any diminution of their greatness, or derogation to their sufficiency, to rely upon counsel.
6. What is the difference between entire and complete? Illustrate by example.
7. What is necessary in order to avoid equivocation?
8. What is the first thing necessary in the arrangement of words with respect to Harmony?
9. Give an example to show how the sounds of words may represent motion.
10. What is meant by the unity of sentences?

Division F.

Rhetoric.

1. What is the province of rhetoric as a science? What as an art?
2. By what process have the rules of rhetoric been formed?
3. When we speak of the concurrent tastes of men as being the standard of taste, what must be understood?
4. Define the term imagination.
5. How many, and what are the degrees of novelty?
6. What state of society is favourable to sublime writing? Why?
7. Into what faults are those who aim at the sublime apt to fall?
8. What can you say of figure, in connexion with the beautiful?
9. To what does gracefulness belong, and what does it require?
10. Define the term beauty, as applied to writing.

Division G.

History.

1. Who was the first Christian Emperor of Rome? What changes were made by him?
2. How was the career of Attila first stopped?
3. What was the origin of the Venetian nation?
4. What was the date of Justinian's reign? Describe his Gothic wars.
5. Give an account of the fate of the Alexandrian Library.
6. What was the origin of the Carlovingian dynasty of France?
7. Describe three prominent Norman expeditions.
8. What were the manners of the early Germans?
9. Who were the monarchs of Poland and Russia in 1000 A.D.?
10. Describe the beginning of the Hapsburg Dynasty.

Division H.

History.

1. Give, with names and dates, an important event in the 19th, 16th, 11th, 9th, and 7th centuries before Christ.
2. Give two instances of decisions of oracles.
3. What was the fate of any Trojan survivor of the destruction of Troy?
4. Describe the changes in the government of Athens caused by the death of Codrus.
5. Describe the military exploits of Darius Hystaspes in the fifth century, B.C.
6. What were the actions of Alexander the Great in Egypt?
7. Describe the inventions by which the Romans gained their first sea-fight; by which Archimedes defended Syracuse; by which Epaminondas defeated the Spartans.
8. Mention two instances in Ancient History in which statuary occupied a prominent place.
9. When and how was Macedonia made a Roman province?
10. Write a short account of the beginning and end of the Ptolemy dynasty in Egypt.

Division A.

Astronomy.

1. What is meant by Equations of Condition, Epoch of a Quantity, Secular Inequality, Periodical Inequality, Catalogues, Tables, and Ephemerides?
2. State all that is known respecting the planet Saturn.
3. Give the stars which are usually considered as being of the first magnitude, and the constellations to which they belong.
4. Explain the Gregorian Calendar, and show how it is adapted to the purposes for which it was designed.
5. Give an outline in full of the method which you employed in calculating the duration and number of digits eclipsed of the next eclipse of the moon visible at Philadelphia.
6. State the method of determining longitude by the Electric Telegraph.
7. Describe the different kinds of Eye-Pieces.
8. State the best methods of correcting achromatic and spherical aberration.
9. Give a drawing and description of the Ring Micrometer, and a description of the sextant, and the purposes to which it is applied.
10. State the method of making and registering observations with the Transit Instrument, and the corrections which must be applied to the *apparent* place of a heavenly body in order to determine its *true* place.

Division B.

Integral Calculus.

1. Integrate $\frac{b}{a}\frac{n}{2}x\,dx$; illustrate the case by a geometrical example, and determine the value of the definite integral between the limits $a=2$ and $b=3$.
2. Explain the case in which the rule to find the integral of a mononinal differential fails.

3. Show how every binomial differential can be reducted to the form $x^{m-1}(a+b\,x^n)^{\frac{p}{g}}\,dx$.
4. Obtain the length of an arc of the semi-cubical parabola, whose equation is $y^3=a^2\,x^2$.
5. Find the integral of the expression
$$du=a^5\,(a+bx^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}\,dx.$$
6. Determine the area of the hyperbolic spiral.
7. Integrate the expression
$$du=a\,(1+x^2)^{-\frac{3}{2}}\,dx,$$ and give the rule.
8. State the rule for obtaining the cubature of a solid, and apply it in determining the solid content of the solid produced by the revolution of the cycloid about its base.
9. Explain the calculus of Finite Differences; state in what it agrees with integral calculus, and in what it differs from it; how it is usually divided, and for what purposes it is commonly employed.
10. Define the Calculus of Variations, and state the principles on which it is based.

Division C.

Differential Calculus.

1. Define a function, and explain the different kinds of functions.
2. Prove that the differential of the product of a variable quantity by a constant is equal to the constant multiplied by the differential of the variable.
3. Differentiate the expression $\frac{a^2+x^2}{b^2+x^2}$ and give the rule.
4. If the diameter of the base of a cone increase uniformly, at the rate of one-tenth of an inch per second, at what rate is its solidity increasing when the diameter of the base becomes ten inches, the height being constantly one inch?
5. Explain Maclauren's Theorem, and state the principle which is assumed in the demonstration of Taylor's Theorem.
6. Prove that the tangent of the angle, which a tangent line at any point of a curve makes with the axis of abscissas, is equal to the first differential co-efficient of the ordinate of the curve.
7. What is the length of the axis of the maximum Parabola which can be cut from a given right cone?
8. Show that the length of the subnormal to any point of a curve is equal to the ordinate multiplied by the differential co-efficient of the ordinate.
9. If the diameter of a circle be ten feet, what is the length of the tangent and subtangent corresponding to an abscissa of three feet, measured from the centre?
10. Give the definition of an isolated point, and determine whether the curve represented by the equation, $y^2=x\,(a+x)^2$ has such a point.

Division D.

Analytical Geometry.

1. Give all the equations which indicate the position of a straight line.
2. Find the equation to the straight line which passes through the points whose co-ordinates are $x'=2$, $y'=3$, and $x''=4$, $y''=5$.
3. Prove that the distance between two points is equal to $\sqrt{(x'-x'')+(y'-y'')^2}$.
4. Obtain the formulas for passing from a system of rectangular to a system of polar co-ordinates.
5. The radius of a circle is five inches, and the variable angle is 30 degrees, the pole being at the circumference; determine the radius vector.
6. Prove that every diameter of the ellipse is bisected at the centre.
7. On a parabola the parameter of whose axis is ten inches, a tangent line is drawn through the point whose ordinate is six inches, the origin being at the vertex of the axis; determine where the tangent line meets the axes of reference.

8. Give the definition of the hyperbola, its equation when referred to its centre and axes, and its equation when the origin is on the vertex of the transverse axis.
9. State what is meant by asymptotes, and whether any curve of the second order except the hyperbola has asymptotes.
10. Define the logarithmic curve, write its equation, and show how it may be described by points.

Division E.

Plane, Spherical, and Analytical Trigonometry.

1. Give the history of Trigonometry and some of its most important applications.
2. State why the same tables can be used in the calculation of the angles of plane and spherical triangles, and how logarithmic secants and co-secants may be obtained from tables which contain only sines, cosines, tangents, and co-tangents.
3. Show why one side must always be given in order to determine a plane triangle, and why the same is not required in a spherical triangle.
4. Explain the meaning of spherical excess, tri-rectangular triangle, great circle and pole.
5. State the rule for finding the angles of a plane triangle, when the sides are given, and the rule for finding the sides of a spherical triangle, when the angles are given.
6. If the mean diameter of the earth be 7,912 miles, and Mount Etna $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles high, how far can its summit be seen at sea? Give the rule.
7. Give the rule, and explain it, for obtaining the magnitude of a heavenly body when its distance is known.
8. Prove that the sine $x = \frac{R \times \text{tang } x}{\sqrt{(R^2 + \text{tang}^2 x)}}$.
9. Deduce the four fundamental equations of analytical trigonometry.
10. Prove that the tangt $(a+b) = \frac{\tan a + \tan b}{1 - \tan a \times \tan b}$.

Division F.

Algebra.

1. What is a root of an equation, and how many roots has a quadratic equation.
2. Form an equation whose roots are 8 and 2.
3. Give the formula for finding the sum of a geometrical progression when it is an increasing series.
4. What is a harmonical progression?
5. Given $x^2 + 3xy - y^2 = 23$ (1) and $x + 2y = 7$ (2), to find the value of x and y.
6. Find the sum of 60 terms of an arithmetical progression whose first term is 5, and common difference 10.
7. What number is that to which if 1, 5, and 13 be severally added, the first sum shall be to the second, as the second to the third.
8. Extract the square root of $a^4 - 4a^3b + 8ab^3 + 4b^4$.
9. Find the fourth power of $2x^3 + 4y^2$ by the binominal theorem.
10. Required the cube root of $x^6 + 6x^5 + 18x^4 + 32x^3 + 36x^2 + 24x + 8$.

Division G.

Algebra.

1. Into what two classes are quadratic equations divided? Define each.
2. What are imaginary quantities?
3. How are surds reduced to their most simple form?
4. Find the difference between $\sqrt{80a^4x}$ and $\sqrt{20a^2x^3}$.
5. Explain the principle of the rule for making a perfect square of the expression $x^2 + px$.
6. Given $x + 24y = 91$ and $40x + y = 763$ to find the value of x and y.
7. Multiply $5 \times 2\sqrt{-3}$ by $2 - \sqrt{-3}$.
8. Free the equation $\frac{x - \sqrt{x+1}}{x + \sqrt{x+1}} = \frac{5}{11}$ from radical quantities.

9. Find a number such that, the *mth* of its square being taken from a leaves a remainder of b.
10. Given $3x^2-9+2x=76$ to find the two values of x.

Division H.

Algebra.

1. What is Algebra, and how does it differ from arithmetic?
2. Show that every quantity having a cipher for its exponent is equal to unity.
3. Explain the distinction between positive and negative quantities. Give an illustration.
4. Explain the reason for changing the signs of the subtrahend in performing subtraction.
5. Divide $8\ a^5-22\ a^4\ b-17\ a^3\ b^2+4\ 8\ a^2\ b^3+2\ 6\ ab^4-8\ b^5$ by $2\ a^2-3\ ab-4\ b^2$.
6. From $2\ a+\frac{2+7\ a}{8}$ take $a-\frac{5\ a-6}{21}$.
7. What are literal equations? Give an example of a numerical equation.
8. Divide $y^2+\frac{y^3}{a-b}$ by $\frac{ab}{a-b}-y$.
9. Multiply $-3\ x^{-3}\ y^{-6}$ by $-4\ xy^2$.
10. Given $\frac{x-5}{4}-\frac{284-x}{5}=6\ x-12\ x$ to find the value of x.

Division F.

Trigonometry and Surveying.

Practical Part.

1. Being desirous of obtaining the height of a fir tree, I measured 100 feet from its base, the ground being level. I then took the angle of elevation of the top, and found it 47° 50′ 30″. Required the height of the tree, the centre of the theodolite being 5 feet above the ground. Perform, using logarithms.
2. Perform the same example without the aid of logarithms.
3. One corner, C, of a tract of land, being inaccessible, to determine the distances from the adjacent corners, A and B, I measured AB = 9.57 chains; the angle BAC, 52° 19′ 15″; and ABC, 63° 19′ 45″. Required AC and BC. Perform without logarithms.
4. In a triangle, ABC, the angle A is 37° 49′; AB is 527 yards; and AC is 493 yards. What is the angle B? Use logarithms.
5. Determine the area of a tract of land, the differences of latitude and departures of whose sides are as follows:

Differences of Latitude.		Departures.	
N.	S.	E.	W.
24.12			17.84
11.92		18.01	
12.06		6.08	
	.98	10.68	
	9.16	11.51	
	8.09	1.68	
	29.87		30.12

Theoretical Part.

1. What is the arithmetical complement of a logarithm? What is its use in logarithmic computations? Prove the correctness of such use.
2. What is the sine of an arc? What is its relation to the chord of double the arc?

3. Prove that in any right-angled triangle radius is to the hypothenuse as the cosine of either acute angle is to the adjacent side.
4. Prove that in a triangle ABC, AB + AC : AB—AC :: tan $\frac{C+B}{2}$: tan $\frac{C-B}{2}$.
5. Explain the method of solving the following example: A tower, BC, standing on the top of a declivity, I measured 75 feet from its base, to a point A and then took the angle BAC, 47° 50′; going on in the same direction 40 feet further to a point D, I took the angle BDC, 38° 30′. What was the height of the tower?

Division G.

Geometry.

1. Define *similar figures,* and explain the use of the word *homologous* with regard to them.
2. Prove that parallelograms which have equal bases and equal altitudes are equivalent.
3. Prove that a straight line drawn parallel to one side of a triangle cuts the others proportionally.
4. How may a straight line be drawn parallel to another, through a given point?
5. To what is the area of a regular polygon equal? Prove your answer.
6. Prove that if two planes cut each other their common section is a straight line.
7. Prove that if two planes which cut each other are each perpendicular to a third plane, their common section is also perpendicular to that plane.
8. Prove that if three plane angles containing a solid angle are correspondingly equal to three plane angles containing another, equal plane angles are equally inclined to other equal plane angles.
9. Define *polyhedron, prism, right prism, a pole of a circle of a sphere,* and *a spherical pyramid.*
10. Prove that if from the vertices of a given spherical triangle as poles, arcs of great circles are described, a second triangle is formed, whose vertices are poles of the sides of the given triangle.

Division H.

Geometry.

1. Define *hypothenuse, hypothesis, diagonal, parallelogram,* and *mutually equiangular polygons.*
2. Give three corollaries to the proposition: The angles which one straight line makes with another, upon one side of it, are either two right angles, or are together equal to two right angles.
3. Prove that the angles at the base of an isosceles triangle are equal.
4. Prove that if, from a point within a triangle, two straight lines are drawn to the extremities of a side, their sum will be less than the sum of the other two sides of the triangle.
5. Prove that if, from a point without a straight line, a perpendicular is drawn to this line, and oblique lines to different points of it, two oblique lines meeting it at points equally distant from the foot of the perpendicular are equal.
6. Define *alternate angles formed by a straight line meeting two other straight lines, a segment of a circle, a straight line inscribed in a circle, a tangent of a circle, a polygon described about a circle.*
7. Prove parallel straight lines everywhere equally distant.
8. Prove opposite sides and angles of a parallelogram equal.
9. Prove that a radius perpendicular to a chord bisects it.
10. Prove that in a circle (or in equal circles) equal chords are equally distant from the centre.

Division A.

Latin.

Translate into English, the following passage:

Horace—Satires—Book I. Sat. I.—lines 9–19.

1. Agricolam laudat juris legumque peritus,
2. Sub galli cantum consultor ubi ostia pulsat.
3. Ille, datis vadibus qui rure extractus in urbem est.
4. Solos felices viventes clamat in urbe.
5. Cætera de genere hoc adeo sunt multa, loquacem.
6. Delassare valent Fabium. Ne te morer audi,
7. Quo rem deducam, Si quis deus—"En ego," dicat,
8. "Jam faciam quod vultis; eris tu, qui modo miles,
9. Mercator; tu, consultus modo, rusticus: hinc vos,
10. Vos hinc mutatis discedite partibus. Eja.
11. Quid statis?" Nolint, atqui licet esse beatis.

1. *Juris legumque,* (line 1.) How may these words be distinguished, so as to give to each a definite meaning?
2. *Peritus,* (line 1.) Distinguish from *doctus,* compare this adjective, and show its connection with a noun understood.
3. *Ostia,* (line 2.) Its proper meaning, distinguished from *janua* and *porta.*
4. *Vadibus,* (line 3.) Show its connection with *datis,* and give the appropriate rule of Syntax.
5. *Rure,* (line 3.) What case? By what rule?
6. *Extractus est,* (line 3.) Give the etymology. Parse.
7. *Loquacem,* (line 5.) How many terminations has this adjective? compare; distinguish from *garrulus* and *verbosus.*
8. *Morer,* (line 6.) What kind of verb? Parse.
9. *Deus,* (line 7.) Decline in both of numbers; and point out the deviations from the regular form.
10. *Nolint,* (line 11.) What kind of verb? Give the principal parts? What mood and tense? Why is it not in the indicative mood?

Translate into English the following passage:

Horace—Epistles—Book I, Ep. X, lines 12–21.

1. Vivere naturæ si convenienter oportet,
2. Ponendæque domo quærenda est area primum,
3. Novistine locum potiorem rure beato?
4. Est ubi plus tepeant hiemes? Ubi gratior aura
5. Leniat et rabiem canis, et momenta Leonis,
6. Quum semel accepit solem furibundus acutum?
7. Est ubi divellat somnos minus invida cura?
8. Deterius Libycis olet aut nitet herba lapillis?
9. Purior in vicis aqua tendit rumpere plumbum,
10. Quam quæ per pronum trepidat cum murmure rivum?

1. In a few words give the scope of the passage, so as to present the one prominent idea discussed by the poet.
2. *Ponendæ domo,* (line 2.) Change the form of these words, by using the *gerund* in place of the *gerundive.*
3. *Canis,* (line 5.) What constellation is meant? At what particular period of the year do we feel its violence, according to the popular belief?
4. *Leonis,* (line 5.) What sign of the Zodiac is this? Why is the term *furibundus* applied to it?
5. *Libycis lapillis,* (line 8.) What is meant? What idea does the poet intend to convey by this expression?
6. *Rumpere plumbum,* (line 9.) What allusion is this to the method of conveying water through the streets of ancient Rome?
7. Divide the *second* line into the several metrical feet which it contains.
8. Specify how many kinds of feet are thus used, and give a definition of each.
9. Is, or is not, this a *spondaic* line? Why?
10. In the same line, point out an example of the *synalæpha,* and explain its use.

Division B.

Latin.

Translate into English the following passage:

Horace—Odes—Book I., Ode 3, lines 25–40.

1. Audax omnia perpeti
2. Gens humana ruit per vetitum nefas.
3. Audax Japeti genus
4. Ignem fraude mala gentibus intulit.
5. Post ignem ætherea domo
6. Subductum, macies et nova febrium
7. Terris incubuit cohors;
8. Semotique prius tarda necessitas
9. Lethi corripuit gradum.
10. Expertus vacuum Dædalus æra
11. Pennis non homini datis.
12. Perrupit Acheronta Herculeus labor.
13. Nil mortalibus arduum est.
14. Cælum ipsum petimus stultitia; neque
15. Per nostrum patimur scelus,
16. Iracunda Jovem ponere fulmina.

1. *Audax*, (line 1.) Distinguish from *fortis*; compare.
2. *Japeti genus*, (line 3.) Give the name of the person alluded to; and relate the fiction which says that "he stole fire from heaven."
3. *Intulit*, (line 4.) What kind of verb? Parse.
4. *Subductum*, (line 6.) Give the principal parts; distinguish from the verb *furor*, furari.
5. *Macies-febrium*, (line 6.) Relate the fiction of Pandora's box, to which allusion is here made.
6. *Corripuit*, (line 9.) Parse.
7. *Dædalus*, (line 10.) Relate the story of Dædalus and his son Icarus.
8. *Æra*, (line 10.) What case? How does it differ from the regular form? How governed? Rule.
9. *Homini*, (line 11.) Distinguish from vir: What case? How governed? Rule.
10. *Herculeus labor*, (line 12.) How many *labors* are ascribed to Hercules? Relate the *labor* to which the poet alludes.

Division C.

Latin.

Translate into English the following passage:

Cicero *vs.* Catiline—Oration I.—Chap. 3.

1. Dixi ego in senatu, cædem te optimatum contulisse
2. In ante diem quintum Kalendas Novembris, tum
3. Cum multi principes civitatis Roma, non tam
4. Sui conservandi quam tuorum consiliorum
5. Reprimendorum causa, profugerunt. Num
6. Infitiari potes te illo ipso die meis præsidiis,
7. Mea diligentia circumclusum, commovere
8. Te contra rempublicam non potuisse, cum
9. Tu, discessu cæterorum, nostra tamen, qui
10. Remansissemus, cæde contentum te esse
11. Dicebas? Nihil agis, nihil moliris, nihil
12. Cogitas, quod ego non modo audiam, sed
13. Etiam videam, planeque sentiam.

1. *Senatu*, (line 1.) Give some account of the Roman Senate, when instituted by Romulus; and state what administrative authority was exercised by this body while Rome continued to be a republic.
2. *Cædem*, (line 1.) Give some account of the conspiracy of Catiline and its blood-thirsty purposes.
3. *Contulisse*, (line 1.) What kind of verb? Parse.

4. *Kalendas,* (line 2.) On what day of the month did the *Kalends* occur? when the *nones?* when the *ides?* what about the Greek *Kalends?*
5. *Roma,* (line 3.) Give the rule for the ablative of place.
6. *Reprimendorum,* (line 5.) Explain the use of the gerundive; and give the rule for the agreement of this word with *consiliorum.*
7. *Die,* (line 6.) What day is meant, according to our division of the calendar? Give the rule for the ablative in this case.
8. *Præsidiis,* (line 6.) Distinguish from *custodiæ* and *vigiliæ.*
9. *Commovere,* (line 7.) Give the principal parts; show the government; and give the rule.
10. *Videam-Sentiam,* (line 13.) Show the difference of meaning, and point out the force of the gradation.

Division D.

Latin.

Translate into English the following passage:

Virgil's Æneid—Book V.—lines 249–260.

1. Ipsis præcipuos ductoribus addit honores,
2. Victori chlamydem auratam, quam plurima circum
3. Purpura Mæandro duplici Melibæa cucurrit;
4. Intextusque puer frondosa regius Ida
5. Veloces jaculo cervos cursuque fatigat,
6. Acer, anhelanti similis, quem præpes ab Ida
7. Sublimem pedibus rapuit Jovis armiger uncis.
8. Longævi palmas nequicquam ad sidera tendunt
9. Custodes; sævitque canum latratus in auras.
10. At, qui deinde locum tenuit virtute secundum,
11. Levibus huic hamis consertam auroque trilicem
12. Loricam donat.

1. *Præcipuos,* (line 1.) Distinguish from *insignis.*
2. *Addit,* (line 1.) Give the etymology. Parse.
3. *Chalmyden,* (line 2.) Describe this article of dress, as worn both by military men and by civilians.
4. *Mæandro,* (line 3.) Where was this river? Whence came its appellative use to denote a *maze?*
5. *Intextus,* (line 4.) Give the etymology. Parse.
6. *Puer regius.* (line 4.) What boy is meant? Relate the fiction which says that "he was carried off by the eagle of Jupiter."
7. *Veloces,* (line 5.) Distinguish from *præpes,* (line 6.) Compare this adjective.
8. *Anhelanti,* (line 6.) What part of speech? What noun is understood? what case? how governed? Rule.
9. *Pedibus,* (line 7.) Decline in both numbers. What case? Rule.
10. *Longævi,* (line 8.) Give the etymology. Distinguish from *senex, annosus,* and *vetus.*

Division E.

Latin.

Translate into English the following passage:

Virgil—Æneid—Book II.—lines 21–31.

1. Est in conspectu Tenedos, notissima fama
2. Insula, dives opum, Priami dum regna manebant;
3. Nunc tantum sinus, et statio male fida carinis:
4. Huc se provecti deserto in litore condunt.
5. Nos abiisse rati, et vento petiisse Mycenas.
6. Ergo omnis longo solvit se Teucria luctu;
7. Panduntur portæ: juvat ire et Dorica castra
8. Desertosque videre locos, litusque relictum.

9. Pars stupet innuptæ donum exitiale Minervæ,
10. Et molem mirantur equi. Primusque Thymœtes
11. Duci intra muros hortatur, et arce locari.

1. *Dives,* (line 2.) Compare and decline.
2. *Opum,* (line 2.) What is the peculiarity of this noun in the singular? What case? what number? how governed? Rule.
3. *Priami,* (line 2.) Give some account of Priam.
4. *Manebant,* (line 2.) Parse.
5. *Carinis,* (line 3.) What part of a ship was the *carina?* What is the meaning in this line? By what figure?
6. *Abiisse,* (line 5.) Give the etymology; give the principal parts. What mood? what tense? how governed? Rule.
7. *Teucria,* (line 6.) What city is meant? Whence came the name? By what figure is the city put for the inhabitants?
8. *Portæ,* (line 7.) Distinguish from *janua* and *ostium.*
9. *Mirantur,* (line 10.) What kind of verb? Parse.
10. *Muros,* (line 11.) Distinguish from *mœnia* and *paries.*

Division F.

Latin.

Translate into English the following passage:

Cæsar (De bello Gallico)—Book I., Chap. 22.

1. Prima luce, cum summus mons a Tito Labieno
2. teneretur, ipse ab hostium castris non longius
3. mille et quingentis passibus abesset; neque,
4. ut postea ex captivis comperit, aut ipsius
5. adventus, aut Labieni, cognitus esset,
6. Considius equo admisso ad eum accurrit, et
7. dicit montem, quem a Labieno occupari
8. voluerit, ab hostibus teneri; id se a Gallicis
9. armis atque insignibus cognovisse. Cæsar
10. suas copias in proximum collem subducit,
11. atque aciem instruit. Labienus, monte
12. occupato, nostros expectabat prœlioque
13. abstinebat.

1. *Luce,* (line 1.) Decline in the singular: What case? Rule.
2. *Summus mons,* (line 1.) Give the precise meaning in this connection: What would be the meaning, if we should write *altissimus mons?*
3. *Teneretur,* (line 2.) Parse.
4. *Ipse,* (line 2.) What person is meant? What kind of pronoun? Decline in both numbers.
5. *Passibus,* (line 3.) How many paces in a Roman mile? What declension? What number? What case? How governed? Rule.
6. *Equo,* (line 6.) Show its connection with *admisso,* and give the rule.
7. *Montem,* (line 7.) What case? Of what verb is it the subject? Rule.
8. *Occupari,* (line 7.) Parse.
9. *Cæsar,* (line 9.) In what country was Cæsar carrying on war at the time alluded to? Specify the portions of modern Europe which that country embraced.
10. *Aciem,* (line 11.) Give its proper meaning as distinguished from *agmen* and *exercitus.*

Division G.

Latin Grammar.

Translate the following Latin sentences:

1. Tarquinius Superbus regum Romanorum septimus fuit. Give the attributes of *regum* and the rule for its case.
2. Miserere domus labentis. Give the attributes of *domus* and the rule for its case.

3. Da mihi pignus amoris. Give the rules for the case of *mihi* and *pignus.*
4. Non ignara mali, miseris succurrere disco. Give the attributes of *ignara* and the rule for the case of *miseris.*
5. Improborum animi solicitudinibus noctes atque dies Exeduntur. Give the attributes of *dies* and the rule for its case.
6. Ex Massiliensium classe, quinque naves sunt depressæ. Give the attributes of *sunt depressæ,* and the rule for the case of *classe.*
7. Senectus non gladio sed consilio et ratione utitur. Give the principal parts of *utitur* and the rule for the case of *gladio.*
8. Negat jus esse, qui miles non sit, pugnare cum hoste. What sort of a clause is "qui miles non sit?" What does it express? Give the rule for the mood of its verb.
9. Hac oratione habita, consilium dimisit. What do the words *oratione habita* denote? Give the principal parts of *dimisit* and the rule for the case of *oratione.*
10. Timotheus belli gerendi fuit peritus. In what case is *belli* and what is its governing word? Give the rule for the case of *gerendi.*

Division H.

Latin Grammar.

1. Give the terminations of the ab. sing., in each of the declensions of nouns.
2. Give the terminations of *Penelope,* naming the cases.
3. Give the voc. sing. of the nouns, *Horatius, Anchises, vir, Deus,* and *Delos.*
4. Give the voc. sing. and gen. plu. of *tu;* the neut. plu. acc. of *aliquis;* the masc. sing. voc. of *meus;* and the masc. sing. voc. of *nostras.*
5. Give the voc. sing. of the comparative degree of *altus.*
6. Give the prin. parts pass. of *capio,* naming the parts and giving their meanings.
7. Name the compound tenses of the infinitive mood, specifying the voice.
8. Name the parts derived from the second root of the verb.
9. Give the attributes of *amare, regam,* and *rexisse.*
10. Give the attributes of *amamini, rectus fuisse,* and *rexeris.*

Division A.

French.

1. Translate into English the following:

Mes gens à la science aspirent pour vous plaire,
Et tous ne font rien moins que ce qu'ils ont à faire:
Raisonner est l'emploi de toute ma maison,
Et le raisonnement en bannit la raison,
L'un me brule mon rôt en lisant quelque histoire,
L'autre rêve à des vers quand je demande à boire;
Enfin je vois par eux votre exemple suivi,
Et j'ai des serviteurs, et ne suis point servi.

2. Translate into English the following:

Ainsi, triste et captif, ma lyre, toutefois,
S'eveillait, écoutant ces plaintes, cette voix,
Ces vœux d'une jeune captive;
Et secouant le joug de mes jours languissants
Aux douces lois des vers je pliais les accents
De sa bouche aimable et naïve.
Ces chants, de ma prison témoins harmonieux,
Feront à quelque amant des loisirs studieux
Chercher quelle fut cette belle:
La grâce décorait son front et ses discours,
Et, comme elle, craindront de voir finir leurs jours
Ceux qui les passeront près d'elle.

3. Give some French sentences in which the following forms of verbs will be properly used, and state what mood, tense, person, and number each one represents :—*eûtes, seriez, parlât, finiras, reçussions, vendu ?*
4. What is the difference between *plus* and *davantage ?* Give an example of the use of both.
5. When must the indicative imperfect be used in French to express the past? Give an example for each case.
6. After what conjunctive expressions should the subjunctive mood always be used in French ? Give an example.
7. Give the meaning in French of the following colloquial English expressions, and illustrate their use in some sentences of your own composition :—*never mind ; if we were to talk ; a while ; what puzzles me is . . ; in earnest ; by saying so ; what prevents you from.*
8. Give the meaning in Enlish of the following French idiomatic expressions : —*au dire de chacun ; il m'importe peu ; il s'en assure ; à l'abri du danger ; l'un chez l'autre ; le long de l'eau ; ici-bas ; debout.*
9. Translate into French the following :
   Coffee, a native of Arabia, is one of the most extensively cultivated plants of America. Some stocks of the shrub having been brought to Paris, were there carefully cultivated in hot-houses, and from that city have proceeded all the plantations of coffee that have been made in the new world.
10. Correct the following sentence, and mention the grammatical rules which are violated in it :—J'étais en ma chambre, occupés à lisant, quand mon ami parut avant moi et me proposa de sortir avec lui.

Division B.

French.

1. Translate in English, (Littérature française, page 114,) from " Cependant ces eaux " . . . . to aux hommes ; (8 lines).
2. Translate into English, (Littérature française, page 248,) from " Soudain un bruit " . . . . to " de la chapelle."
3. Give the meaning in English of the following French idiomatic expressions :—il ne prend point le change,—à sa portée,—ainsi que,—faire peur—tous les dix ans.
4. Translate into French the following : — The boys of this Division are all intelligent enough, but they are not always attentive to the instructions which I give them. England without her colonies would be among the smallest states of Europe. The good people are not always happy in this life, but all the poor people are generally unhappy now.
5. Give the form of the Infinitive present of the following verbs found in your second question ; and state in what *mood, tense, person,* and *number* they are severally used :—*fit, vit, semblait, s'enfuit, trainant.*
6. Into what three classes may the Prepositions be divided in French, and which of them must be repeated before every noun? Give an example.
7. When is *quelque* spelled in two words, and when is it used as an adverb ? Give an example for each case.
8. For what purpose are the adverbs *ci* and *là* often joined to the adjectives *ce, cet, cette, ces ?* Give an example illustrating this rule.
9. Where is the adverb generally placed in French ;—first, when it modifies an adjective ;—second, when is is used with a compound tense of any verb ? Give an example for each case.
10. In what cases does the past participle agree with the subject of the verb in gender and number, and when does it never agree with it? Give an example illustrating each case, — the nominative, or subject, being feminine singular.

Division C.

French.

1. Translate into English, (Grand-Père, page 289,) from " Monsieur le Capitaine " . . . . to " profond respect."

2. Translate into English, (Grand-Père, pages 298-299,) from "Le Concierge" . . . . to "à coups de pierres."
3. Give the meaning in good English of the following French idiomatic expressions:—il s'agissait de savoir,—à la bonne heure,—ci-joint,— on a beau faire,— congè de convalescence.
4. Give the meaning in French of the following colloquial phrases:—Must I buy anything else?— Is this all that you want?—Why did you not lock it up?—Try not to miss your lesson.—I was quite afraid of making mistakes.
5. State in what mood, tense, person and number the following verbs, taken from your second question, are used, and give the form of the Infinitive present of each one:—*ouvrit; essaya; tiens; pleurent; mourront; chasserait.*
6. What is observed of the present participle; what does it express, and what do grammarians call *Gerund?*—Give an example.
7. When does the past-participle agree with its object direct, and when does it never agree with it? Give an example for each case.
8. Give the irregular forms of the following verbs:—*acquérir, asseoir,* and *pouvoir.*
9. What adverbs are placed before the verb which they modify? Give an example.
10. Translate into French the following sentences:—The sister of your friend was sent to the city, but she did not go there.—Has she sent back the books which you had lent her last week?—I hope that you have not forgotten your pen this morning.

Division D.

French.

1. Translate into English (Grand-Père, page 216,) from "Ils restèrent," . . . . . to "des voleurs."
2. Translate into English (Grand-Père, page 200), from "J'apportais du souffre," . . . . to "à l'instant."
3. Give the meaning in English of the following French idiomatic expressions:—C'ést entendu; j'en suis; de travers; cette fenêtre donne sur la rue; se fit battre.
4. Give the meaning in French of the following colloquial phrases:—That will not be enough. How many must there be? He must be thirsty too. What are you going to do with it? In the same manner as silk-worms?
5. Give the Preterite indefinite of the verb *se lever,* to rise, in the following forms:—1st, affirmative; 2d, negative; 3d, interrogative; 4th, negative and interrogative combined.
6. What is the only mode of conjugating passive verbs in French? Give an example.
7. Give the simple forms of the verb *y avoir,* and illustrate its use in a French sentence of your own composition.
8. What tenses are derived from the Infinitive present, the Present participle and the Preterit definite, and how are they formed?
9. Give the irregular forms of the following verbs:—*aller, mourir,* and *tenir.*
10. Make some French sentences in which the following forms of verbs will be properly used, and state to what mood, tense, person, and number each one represents:—*Enverrai; court; dors; ouvert; sentis.*

Division E.

French.

1. Translate into English (French Reader, page 40), from "Monsieur répond," &c., ... to "je n'en ai point."
2. Translate into English (French Reader, page 230), from "Aux bords de la Pamise," &c. . . . . "vers son declin."
3. What four nouns have two plural forms in French? Give these forms, and explain how and when they are used.

4. How are the three sorts of comparatives formed in French? Give an example for each case.
5. What is called contraction, and what is observed of it? Give an example of its use.
6. Conjugate the verb *tomber*, to fall, in all its moods, tense, persons, and numbers.
7. In what mood, tense, person, and number are the following forms of verbs used? Give their meaning in English:—*Eûtes, sommes, parlera, finiraient, reçoit, vendu.*
8. What are the different forms of the possessives *my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their*, and what is to be observed in using them? Give an example.
9. Translate into French the following sentences:—You will be blind. The shoe scratches my foot. We sell some milk. My brother was in the city. The son of this man is very cunning.
10. How are the personal pronouns to be translated in French in the following sentences:—You see me; come with me; I speak to him; they beat him; go with her: receive her well give her the book; I owe money to them; we perceive them.

Division F[1].

German.

1. What prepositions govern the dative and accusative, and according to what rule?
2. Translate:—What lies upon the table? The book lies upon the table. Who has laid the hat upon the table? What have you laid under the table? I have laid the lead under the table.
3. What classes of words are declined like the definite article?
4. Translate:—Do you go into that garden? Into which garden? Into the garden of that man. I shall come into that garden. Who sits upon that bench?
5. What classes of words are declined like the indefinite article?
6. Translate:—Do you see my house? Which house? I see that house. Have you a field? I have no field.
7. Give the singular and plural nominatives of the following words in German:—The mother, the daughter, the brother, the man, the shoe.
8. Give the rule of Class 4 of irregular verbs.
9. Give the three principal parts of the following verbs in German:—To break; to speak; to see; to give; to eat.
10. Give the rule about the gender of compound substantives.

Division F[2].

German.

1. What kind of verbs take in their compound tenses the auxiliary verb „ſeyn" instead of „haben"?
2. Translate:—Did you go into the garden? I went into the garden. Did you stand in the theatre? I stood in the theatre. Was the mother gone?
3. What are verbs of the mixed form?
4. Give the three principal parts of the following verbs in German:—To know; to think; to bring; to be able; to be allowed.
5. What is the position of the infinitive or past participle in a sentence?
6. Translate:—Who has had the book? The sister has had it. Will she go to New York? She will go to New York. Have you found the wine?
7. Give the rule about the formation of diminutives.
8. Translate:—The son. The little son. The cask. The little cask. The book. The little book. The maid. The girl. The hammer. The little hammer.
9. Give the rule of Class 2 of irregular verbs.
10. Give the three principal parts of the following verbs in German:—To ride on horseback; to bite; to write; to rub; to remain.

Division G.

German.

1. What is the rule about the position of the dative and accusative?
2. Translate:—To whom do you give the ring? I give it to the friend. I give the book to the brother. I give the book to him. I give it to him.
3. Give two rules about the elision of the letter „e" in the present indicative.
4. Inflect the present indicative of *to learn, to study, to send, to sit, to dance.*
5. Give the rule about the repetition of an auxiliary verb in German.
6. Translate:—Do you sing? I do. Did you dance? Yes, I did. Was he studying? Yes, he was.
7. Give the rule of Class 3 of irregular verbs.
8. Give the three principal parts of each of the following verbs in German:—To sing; to drink; to bind; to wind; to spring.
9. What is the corresponding tense in German where in English the auxiliary verb *did* is used?
10. Translate:—Did you love? Did you find? Did he laugh? He did laugh. Did we make.

Division H.

German.

1. How do we give in German the feminine form to the name of a male?
2. Translate:—The friend. The female friend. The baker. The baker's wife. The slave. The female slave. The priest. The priestess. The king. The queen.
3. How is the third person singular present formed?
4. Translate: Does the mother sing? She sings. Does the father dance? He dances. Does it cost?
5. How is the first person singular formed?
6. Translate:—Do you go? I go. Do you see and hear? I see and hear. Do I learn?
7. How is "*to*" before an infinitive translated in German?
8. What is the rule about the elision of the letter „e"?
9. What is the rule about the translation of "*it*?"
10. Translate:—Is the flute good. It is good. Is the wagon large? It is large. Is the flesh red or white? It is white.

Division A.

Mental Philosophy.

Disordered Intellectual Action.

1. Define the term Somnambulism. Give the principal characteristics of this state of mind. In what respect is a Somnambulist like, and in what is he unlike, a dreamer?
2. Give a classification of insane states of mind.
3. What is the prominent point of difference between the mental condition of the Maniac and Monomaniac?
4. Describe the special effects of Mania on each of the cerebral functions.
5. Define the terms Moral Insanity and Dementia.
6. Give the root of the word Hypochondriasis, and explain the nature of the disorder.
7. Why have legal decisions been made in favor of Life Insurance Companies when policy-holders have "died by their own hands?"
8. Explain the ways in which a man can "die by his own hands" without committing suicide.
9. What is the Legal Test employed in cases of Homicidal Monomania? Show the fallacy of it.
10. What is the true test of Moral Responsibility in such cases?

Division B.

Mental Philosophy.

1. What are the characteristics of emotions? What are the characteristics of emotions of beauty?
2. Give an example of the mock-heroic, and explain it.
3. Explain the difference between gladness and joy; between sorrow and grief.
4. How do the affections differ from all other branches of the desirous nature?
5. What are the checks which nature has imposed on the excessive action of anger?
6. What are the proofs that the Parental Affection is an implanted principle?
7. What argument in favour of the existence of God proves *more* than any other? Why?
8. What are the suppositions by which the conclusion may be escaped, that design manifested in an effect implies intelligence in the cause?
9. State the argument known as "the fortress of Atheism," and refute it.
10. State Hume's Sophism, and refute it.

Division C.

Mental Philosophy.

1. What are the methods by which we make use of intentional memory in recalling facts?
2. State the rules for the improvement of the memory.
3. Classify the Laws of Association.
4. What are the occasions upon which the idea of power is suggested to the mind?
5. State four principles which are developed by original suggestion.
6. Explain the foundation of Antithesis.
7. What is Relative Suggestion? What are the most important relations with which we are acquainted?
8. Explain the difference between the origin of our ideas of duration and that of those of succession.
9. What are the characteristics of appetites? At what particular point do they partake of morality?
10. What is the Imagination, and what is its practical value?

Division D.

Mental Philosophy.

1. What three suggestions does Dr. Wayland make in answer to the suggestion that the thinking principle is man in material?
2. Explain accurately the difference in *materialism, idealism,* and *nihilism.*
3. In what respects is the perception of an object endowed with colour, unlike the perception of an object endowed with form?
4. How does an object appear when seen on the shore from the water? Why?
5. In what respects are our knowledge of mind and our knowledge of matter dissimilar?
6. Give three brief quotations from Locke's works, which force us to conclude that he believed in the doctrine of representative images.
7. What is meant by the natural language of sound?
8. What are the principal laws of light connected with the subject of vision?
9. What are the characteristics of first truths?
10. In connection with the subject of consciousness how many and what are the kinds of necessity considered? Give an example of each.

Division E.

Political Economy.

1. What is meant by the *minimum* cost of labour? What is meant by the *natural* cost of labour? What rate of wages must be earned by the labourers of a country in order that the population may remain stationary?
2. What are the special circumstances by which irrespectively of the influence of capital the wages of labour are affected?
3. What are the circumstances upon which the convenience of an investment depends?
4. Give the history of the first $7\frac{3}{10}$ per cent. Government Loan. A man had $950 in $7\frac{3}{10}$ per cent. Government Loan expiring October 1st 1864; how much interest would he receive in gold if he converted the bonds into those of 1881?
5. Why is the interest of real estate less than that of other property?
6. What are the causes of a waste of labour?
7. State the present law of the United States in reference to income tax?
8. What are the circumstances which give value to land independently of productiveness?
9. What are the points of view from which consumption, for the sake of gratifying desire, may be considered?
10. Why are women paid less for their labour than men?

Division F.

Political Economy.

1. Show that the various forms of industry are equally important in conferring intrinsic value on substances.
2. Explain the whole difference between the products of operative industry, and of industry of investigation and discovery.
3. Enumerate the advantages of inanimate over animate natural agents.
4. In 1854 a man received a salary of $1550. His expenses during that year were $1298.97. In 1855 he received the same salary, but his expenses were reduced $5\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.; how much was his salary virtually increased by the above reduction?
5. What is the argument in favour of defending benevolence on principles of Political Economy?
6. Enumerate the results accomplished by the various instruments which man employs for modifying momentum.
7. What are the modes in which the productive power of man may be exerted?
8. When is a free constitution of no value, and why?
9. Explain the origin of our idea of wealth.
10. The principle that the greater the ratio of capital to labour the greater will be the stimulus to labour is subject to certain modifications. What are they?

Division A.

Mineralogy.

1. Give the position of the axes in the oblique rhomboidal prism.
2. What is the primary form from which the rhombohedron is derived? Give its derivation and position of axes.
3. Describe the trigonal trisoctahedron, and show how it is obtained from a cube.
4. Give an example of dimorphism.
5. Give the properties of Iceland Spar.
6. Give the different forms in which carbon occurs.
7. How can quartz be distinguished from calcite?
8. What is the composition of talc?
9. What is hornblende?
10. How is silver cupelled?

Division B.

Physics.

1. What are anomalous magnets?
2. To what variations are magnetic needles subject?
3. Explain what is meant by electrical tension.
4. Why does electricity reside only on the outer surfaces of excited bodies?
5. What is the principle of the galvanometer.

Chemistry.

1. How is steel manufactured?
2. How is cast iron changed to malleable iron?
3. What are the ores of cobalt?
4. Give the tests for manganese.
5. What is the reaction of nitric acid upon copper?

Division C.

Physics.

1. What two great forces hold the atmosphere in equilibrium?
2. Give the rules by which changes in the weather may be foreseen from variations in the barometer.
3. What three forms of vibration are observed in tense strings?
4. Upon what does the pitch of a musical sound depend?
5. How may distances be calculated by sound?

Chemistry.

1. How is iodine manufactured?
2. What are the properties of bromine?
3. Give the reaction of fluor-spar with sulphuric acid.
4. Define isomorphism.
5. Explain the commercial mode of obtaining potassium.

Division D.

Physics.

1. Describe the cathetometer.
2. Define the expression, "force of torsion."
3. When is the limit of magnitude attained?
4. Upon what principle is Bourdon's metallic barometer constructed?
5. Give the order of ductility in the principal metals.

Chemistry.

1. What changes do chlorate of potassa and black oxyde of manganese undergo when heated? Give the formula.
2. What are the properties of oxygen?
3. Give all the laws of chemical combination.
4. In what parts by volume do oxygen and hydrogen unite to form water?
5. What is the density of oxygen, the weight of one volume of hydrogen being taken as unity?

Division E.

Physics.

1. Give the law of equilibrium of a train of wheel-work.
2. Give the formula for a compound pulley in terms of the velocities of power and weight.
3. Give the formula for the inclined plane when the power is applied parallel to the base.
4. In how many ways may substances be crystallized?
5. Describe the oblique rhomboidal prism.

Chemistry.

1. Why is chemical action promoted by solution?
2. Explain what is meant by single elective affinity.
3. Give all the laws of chemical combination.
4. Illustrate the effect of electricity on chemical affinity by an example.
5. Define catalysis.

Division F.

Physics.

1. Define matter.
2. What are the specific properties of gold?
3. What are physical changes?
4. Prove that air is impenetrable.
5. Define velocity.
6. Give the formula for the distance passed over by a body moving with a uniform velocity.
7. Describe Reynier's dynanometer.
8. Apply the parallelogram of forces to two forces acting at right angles to each other.
9. What is the momentum of a moving body equal to?
10. What is the resultant of two unequal parallel forces, and where is its point of application?

Division A.

Hygiene.

1. Define the terms *pathology, etiology, prophylactic, zymotic, toxæmic, ochlesis,* and *fomites.*
2. Name four aeriform bodies which are denominated non-essential constituents of the atmosphere.
3. Give an account of the influence on the human system of carbonic acid, carbonic oxide, carburetted hydrogen, and sulphuretted hydrogen in respired air.
4. Name a good test for organic matter in air or liquids, and three substances which act as disinfectants.
5. How may a hospital, infected with puerperal fever, be best disinfected?
6. When a vessel having on board persons ill with yellow fever, arrives in the Delaware, what should our Board of Health require in regard to it?
7. Name three endemic diseases which are never contagious, and three contagious diseases which are never epidemic.
8. What is known of the causation of Cholera?
9. What physical conditions in a locality are attended by the lowest mortality from phthisis?
10. State the comparative salubrity, according to statistics, of the three great regions into which the United States and Territories are naturally divided.

Division B.

Hygiene.

1. What reasons are sufficient for the rejection of the principle of exclusive vegetarianism?
2. Name four nitrogenous proximate principles of animal food, and give their characteristic properties.
3. State the constituents of milk, and their respective places and uses among the alimentary substances.
4. By what signs may we judge, in any case, of the utility or injurious effect of alcohol, as an accessory food?
5. What is *methomania,* and what other diseases may result from the same cause?

6. Compare the effects on the body of the cold, warm, and hot baths.
7. What are the evils which may follow from neglect of the bowels?
8. State why the following employments are unfavorable to health; making of phosphorous matches, needle-grinding, vulcanising india-rubber, working in lead, coloring green paper-hangings.
9. What is one of the modes by which tape-worm is known to be introduced into the human body?
10. How may a young person, inheriting a predisposition to pulmonary consumption, best favor its prevention in himself?

Division C.

Anatomy and Physiology.

1. What are the differences between the muscular tissue of the stomach, and that of the temporal muscle?
2. Mention examples of *rudimentary* muscles in man; and explain the term.
3. What muscles are attached to the patella?
4. What muscle is the principal flexor, and what the chief extensor, of the fore-arm?
5. Name and describe the membranes of the brain.
6. Explain and give examples of excito-motor, sensori-motor, and excito-secretory actions.
7. Mention the functions of the 1st, 3d, 7th and 9th pairs of cephalic nerves.
8. Describe the coats of the human eye.
9. Describe the iris; and explain its action and use.
10. Name the parts composing the middle and internal ear.

Division D.

Anatomy and Physiology.

1. State the locality in the body of the patella, hyoid bone, olecranon process, carpus and astragalus.
2. Name all the parts which intervene to protect the brain from injury by a blow on the head.
3. Describe the hip joint, and the knee joint.
4. State what you know of the functions of the liver and of the uses of its secretion.
5. Name the digestive fluids, and mention their respective action upon articles of food.
6. What is the blood-heat of man; and how is it believed to be maintained?
7. Describe the minute anatomy of the skin; and state the uses of its different parts.
8. Name all the valves of the heart, with the position of each.
9. What are the differences between arteries, veins, and capillaries?
10. Name five different offices or actions of organic cells.

Division E.

Anatomy and Physiology.

1. Describe the bones of the fore-arm.
2. State the number and characteristics of the cervical and dorsal vertebræ in man.
3. Mention the locality in the body of the larynx, pharynx, pancreas, and ileocœcal valve.
4. Describe the human stomach.
5. How is forced expiration effected in man?
6. What changes does respiration produce in the blood?
7. Which are found empty after death, arteries or veins; and why?
8. What is the normal rate of the pulse in an adult; and how does it vary from this in infancy, in old age, and in extreme debility?
9. What is the office of the lymphatics; what that of the lacteals; and whither do they both convey their contents?
10. Which excretory organs chiefly remove the waste carbon of the body; and which its waste nitrogen and salts?

Division F.

Zoology.

1. Name the five branches or divisions of the animal kingdom, and define the name applied to each.
2. How do mammals differ from birds, reptiles, and fishes?
3. Name eight distinct points of difference between man and the ape.
4. Compare the teeth of the tiger, the sheep, and the rat together.
5. Give the principal distinctions between the different species of the canine genus.
6. Describe the opossum; and state to what order and class it belongs.
7. Mention in what parts of the world are found the armadillo, the ornithorhynchus, the lama, the hippopotamus, and the gazelle, respectively.
8. Name three peculiarities in the eyes of birds.
9. Name the six orders in Cuvier's classification of birds, with the meaning of each term.
10. Compare the legs and feet of the rapaces, grallatores, and palmipedes.

Division G.

Book-keeping.

1. What is the use of the Commission Sales Book?
2. Closed Sales No. 1. Cresswell & Co's consignment. Total sales, $1,08893 Charges already posted, $83 62. After charges, storage and labour, one per cent. on total sales. Commission and guarantee five per cent. on sales. Give the Day Book entry.
3. Received an account-sales from Lewoss & Cavada, N.Y., of Starch and Flour (Adventure No. 2) shipped them. Net proceeds, $3,800. Give the Day Book entry.
4. Sales were made as follows:

June 28,	amount	$4,433 75
,, 30,	,,	1,225 00
July 11,	,,	687 50

   What is the average date of the gross sales? Show the work.
5. The after charges on the above sales were $224 90. The Cash charges, $288 75, were due from the 15th of June. What are the net proceeds, and when are they due? Show the work.
6. What is an account current?
7. Give the different steps in order, in closing an account current.
8. On closing J.D.'s account current, we find that there is a balance of interest in our favour of $99. Give the Day Book entry.
9. Drew on Lewoss & Cavada, N.Y., at ten days date, my favour, for $3,890 46. Give the words of the draft.
10. How are the entries made on the two sides of the Sundry Creditors account, and how is that account closed?

Division H.

Book-keeping.

1. Describe Double Entry Book-keeping.
2. What is an account?
3. What is the object of the merchandise account? What should be entered on each side? How should it be closed?
4. What are the three rules for journalizing?
5. What should be the Journal entries, and why, when you sell goods on account? When you pay money on your note? When you gain anything?
6. Explain the process of posting.
7. What is the form and use of a Trial-balance?
8. By what entries should the Cash Book be journalized?
9. If goods are purchased amounting to $300, for which you pay one-half in cash, and give your note for the remainder, what accounts should be debited and credited, and why?

10. Give the Day Book, Cash Book, and Bill Book entries for the following transaction:—January 23, 1865. Received from William Martin, in full for merchandise amounting to $932 75, on which a discount of five per cent. is allowed, his accepted draft on Kennedy & Co., of this date, our favour, at three days sight for $700, and cash for the balance.

Examination Questions set at the Girls' High School, Providence.

Senior Class.

Questions for written examination.

Virgil—Æneid, Book I.

1. When and where was Virgil born? What were his favourite studies? How many years did he devote to the composition of this poem?
2. Translate, commencing at *Veniet* (line 283), as far as *cruento*.
3. Decline *domus* (line 264). Which are more frequently used in the genitive and accusative plural, the forms of the 2nd declension or those of the 4th? What difference in meaning between *domus* and *domi?* How many other exceptions in gender? Give the quantity of the penult? What is the rule? What other exceptions to the rule?
4. Translate ten lines, commencing at *Cui mater* (314 line).
5. Divide *Harpalyce* (317th line) into its syllables, giving the rules for division. By what exception to what rule do we decide the quantity of the final syllable?
6. Give the derivation of *venatrix* (319th line). What is denoted by this termination—*rix*, when added to the root of a verb? What is the corresponding masculine termination?
7. Give the quantity of each syllable in *dederat*. How many and what other perfects of two syllables have the same penultimate quantity?
8. Parse *diffundere*. Is this a common use of the infinitive? Is such a construction ever employed in prose?
9. What kind of pronoun is *siquam* (322nd line)? Decline it. How many and what other kinds of adjective pronouns? What determines the gender of words used partitively?
10. Translate nine lines, beginning with the 494th.

Intellectual Philosophy.

1. Name the laws of association, both objective and subjective.
2. Illustrate the law of association by resembling effects.
3. Define memory. What two functions are ascribed to it?
4. Give examples of extraordinary memory.
5. In what does reasoning consist?
6. What is a syllogism?
7. What are sophisms? Give examples.
8. Compare that kind of reasoning by which we arrive at absolute certainty with that by which we arrive at practical certainty, in respect to their process, matter, and result.
9. What are the rules which govern us in receiving circumstantial evidence?
10. Show, by an illustration, that the coincidence of direct and indirect evidence gives the strongest possible ground of belief.

Girls' Senior Class.

Astronomy.

1. Find the length of the moon's diameter in miles.
2. How is the figure of the moon's orbit ascertained?
3. Explain libration in latitude.
4. How did Dr. Halley discover the acceleration of the moon's motion in her orbit?
5. Explain why a lunar eclipse does not occur at every full moon.

6. Describe the mode of investigation pursued by Newton in determining gravity to be the force which binds the moon in her orbit.
7. Describe the phases of Venus.
8. Give a full account of the discovery of the velocity of light.
9. Give the history of the discovery of Neptune.
10. Give some particulars respecting the comet of 1843:—(viz., velocity at its perihelion, distance from the sun, temperature, length of its train, &c.)

Evidences of Christianity.

1. What is a prophecy? Give some instance of fulfilled prophecy.
2. What peculiarity in the argument for the divine authority of Christianity?
3. Exhibit the difficulty experienced by the apostles in disseminating Christianity, arising from the fact that the idea of propagating a new and exclusive religion was a novelty to both Jew and Gentile.
4. Describe the persecutions in the early centuries.
5. Compare the progress of Mohammedanism with the spread of the Gospel.

Origin and History of Language.

1. On what does the growth of language depend?
2. What is the geographical line of division between the monosyllabic and the polysyllabic languages?
3. What classes of words are found to bear a close resemblance in all languages?
4. How is the original unity of language indicated?
5. Into what classes are written symbols divided.
6. What families are included in the Indo-European stock of languages?
7. What languages now spoken in Europe are derived from the ancient Latin of the Romans?
8. When did the plural form in—en disappear from the English?
9. How do you account for dialectical differences existing in the United States?
10. Give examples of words, Americanisms, borrowed from other languages with which the English has come in contact in this country.

Girls' Senior Class.

Kames' Elements of Criticism.

1. What is meant by the figurative sense of a word? Give illustrations.
2. On what does the beauty of figures of speech depend?
3. Give, from standard authors, examples of these errors, viz.:—
   1st. Of crowding different figures of speech into one thought or period.
   2d. Of grafting one figure on another.
   3d. Of intricate and involved figures.
4. On what is excellence in composition dependent?
5. What is the general law which underlies the prominent maxims in Rhetoric.
6. What are the characteristics of poetry?
7. To what does poetry owe its peculiar impressiveness?
8. Give some facts illustrating the fluctuations of taste in architecture, eloquence, and poetry.
9. What is the foundation of taste?
10. Mention some works of genius that have been universally approved.

Middle Class.

Study of Words.

1. State the first theory of the origin of language.
2. What are the objections to this theory?
3. Give an account of the mingling of the Saxon and Norman languages.
4. Give the Latin word from which *Sacrament* is derived, and the changes in signification which the word has undergone since its first use by the Romans.
5. Give examples of words in which we may trace the record of customs and states of society which have now passed entirely away.

Chemistry.

1. What are the four effects of caloric?
2. Describe the process by which thermometers are constructed.
3. At what rate do gases expand on the application of heat? Define latent heat?
4. Define Inorganic Chemistry?
5. How is chemical affinity distinguished from all other kinds of attractive forces?
6. Define an alkali and a salt.
7. In what substance is nitrogen found in abundance?
8. Describe the action of chlorine as a bleaching agent.
9. Name and describe the two most important compounds of carbon and hydrogen.
10. Name the metals which, by oxydation, produce alkalies.

Geometry.

1. The sum of the interior angles of a polygon is equal to two right angles taken as many times as the polygon has sides, less two. (Book I., Prop. 26.)
2. If two quantities be increased or diminished by like parts of each, the results will be proportional to the quantities themselves. (Book II., Prop. 9.)
3. Define a tangent and a secant.
4. Through any three points not in the same straight line, one circumference may be made to pass, and but one. (Book III., Prop. 7,)
5. In equal circles, radii making equal angles at the centre, intercept equal arcs of the circumference; conversely, radii which intercept equal arcs, make equal angles at the centre. (Book III., Prop. 15.)
6. Define similar polygons.
7. Rectangles having equal altitudes are proportional to their bases. (Book IV., Prop. 3.)
8. In any triangle, the square of a side opposite an acute angle is equal to the sum of the squares of the base and the other side, diminished by twice the rectangle of the base and the distance from the vertex of the acute angle to the foot of the perpendicular drawn from the vertex of the opposite angle to the base, or the base produced. (Book IV., Prop. 12.)
9. If in a right-angled triangle, a perpendicular be drawn from the vertex of the right angle to the hypothenuse:

   1°. The triangles on each side of the perpendicular will be similar to the given triangle and to each other:

   2°. Each side about the right angle will be a mean proportional between the hypothenuse and the adjacent segment:

   3°. The perpendicular will be a mean proportional between the two segments of the hypothenuse. (Book IV., Prop 23.)

10. If two chords intersect in a circle, their segments will be reciprocally proportional. (Book IV., Prop. 28.)

Poetry.

1. Define the leading divisions of dramatic poetry and the three dramatic unities.
2. Define elegiac and didactic poetry, and give examples.
3. Define epic poetry.
4. Who were the great epic poets of Greece, Italy and England.
5. Define metre and scanning.
6. What advantage has poetry over the other fine arts?
7. What are the characteristics that distinguish poetic from other literary productions?
8. What does Lord Byron say of the creative power of poetry?
9. What advantage arises from the mere form of poetry? Give an illustration of this?
10. What are some of the uses of poetry?

Latin.—Cæsar. Book I.

1. In third paragraph, translate from *Is ubi* to *Perfacile factu.*
2. Translate the fifth paragraph.
3. In the last sentence, why is the passive participle *exustis* used? Give principal parts of verb from which it comes?
4. In sixth paragraph, construe from *Extremum* to *Omnibus,* and translate the remainder.
5. Why are *possent* and *ducerentur* in subjunctive? What words are to be supplied after *prohibere?*
6. Translate the eighth paragraph.
7. In the second sentence, explain the use of both the present and imperfect depending on the historical present.
8. In what sense is *dies* used in the seventh? Why is *dicerent* subjunctive?
9. In the *oratia directa,* what form of the verb would be used instead of *reverterentur?*
10. Translate eight lines of the ninth paragraph?

JUNIOR CLASS—FIRST DIVISION.

Ancient History.

1. State the classes into which Romulus divided the people of Rome.
2. Give the laws that were passed for the protection of the plebians.
3. Give an account of Coriolanus.
4. Give an account of the invasion of Rome by the Gauls.
5. Give the causes and results of the first Punic war.
6. Give an account of the Gracchi.
7. Give an account of the formation and dissolution of the First Triumvirate.
8. Name the 12 Cæsars.
9. State how many times and by whom Rome was sacked.
10. Name the last Roman Emperor and the year of his resigning the crown.

Rhetoric.

1. Define Taste.
2. State what must be considered the standard of Taste.
3. State the advantages derived from the use of figurative language.
4. Give the four observations respecting the use of figures.
5. State the difference between the beautiful and the sublime.
6. State the difference between wit and humour.
7. State the different forms in which sublimity develops itself.
8. State when a writer may attain to sublimity in style.
9. Name and define the faults opposed to sublimity.
10. Define the moral sublime.

Natural Philosophy.

1. Name the essential properties of matter.
2. State the three facts established respecting gravitation.
3. Give the laws that govern falling bodies.
4. Explain specific gravity.
5. Explain the cause of capillary attraction and give familiar illustrations of it.
6. Define hydraulics.
7. Explain the construction and use of the barometer.
8. Explain mirage.
9. State the three properties contained in a ray of solar light.
10. Give the nature and origin of sounds.

English Literature.

1. Name the first English Reformer and give an outline of his labours.
2. Name the distinguished men of the 15th century.
3. Give the plan of the "Faerie Queene."

4. Give an abstract of Shakspeare's life.
5. State the design and character of Hudibras.
6. Give an account of the life of Bishop Berkely, from the year of his arrival in Rhode Island, until his death, naming the works written during that time.
7. Name the most distinguished novelist of the 18th century, and give the names of his works.
8. Name Gray's poems. Give the argument of the bard as set down by the poet himself.
9. Give the life of Goldsmith previous to his commencing his literary career.
10. Give an analysis of Burke's intellect and style.

Latin.

1. Explain the ablative absolute.
2. Give the rules for the ablative after passive verbs.
3. Translate in Book 2, Roman History, the second paragraph.
4. In the same paragraph give the rule for *juraret* being in the subjunctive.
5. Translate the sixth paragraph.
6. Translate the ninth paragragh.
7. Translate the 10th paragraph.
8. Give the principal parts of *jubetur, conjunxerat,* and *delet.*
9. State the difference in the signification of *copia* as used in the singular and plural.
10. In the 11th paragraph parse *rediisset.*

French.

1. Define the simple and elided articles.
2. Define the contracted article and state when it is used.
3. Translate into French:—the sister; the brother; the friend (m); the friend (f); the water; of the knife; to the general; of the ink; to the order; of the mother.
4. Give the past definite of *avoir* and *etre.*
5. Give the terminations of the "imperfect indicative" in the second and fourth conjugations.
6. Give the terminations of the "future and present conditional" of the first and third conjugations.
7. Write in the plural the following:—*le cheval; le ciel; le hibou; le chameau; le cou; l'émail; le portail; le neveu; le bois; l'oeil; l'étau; le général; l'écrou; le mal.*
8. Give the first, second, third and fourth exceptions in the formation of the plural of nouns.
9. Define the possessive adjectives and name them.
10. Write the feminine of the following:—*brave; vif; peureux; aigu; ancien; rouge; bon, doux; amer; consolateur; vertueux; bleu; pareil; eternel; sujet; poltron.*

EXAMINATION IN GREEK PROSE—SECOND DIVISION.

1. The judge often admired the beauty of virtue.
2. The citizens admire the virtue of the judge.
3. The hen laid three eggs.
4. The water has been turned into wine.
5. The hare was turned into a horse.
6. I am glad that my brothers are happy.
7. The father rejoiced in his son's being wise.
8. I am pleased with those who transact the affairs of the state.
9. I am vexed when the bad are wealthy.
10. The king marches into the country of the Scythians.
11. He had a pain in both his jaws.
12. The crocodile lays eggs.

Questions for Written Examination in Anabasis—Second Division.

Classical Department.

1. Translate Book I, Chap. I, Sections 2, 3, and 4.
2. Repeat the rules for the accent of νεώτερος, επεί, τοῦ, παρεῖναι.
3. Translate Book I, Chap. 2, Sections 2 and 3.
4. In what direction did Cyrus journey, for what purpose, and with what pretences.
5. Conjugate all the verbs in full in this section.
6. Translate Book I, Chap. 3, Section 3.
7. What was the cause of this address of the commander to the soldiers ?
8. Mention all the anomalous verbs in this section.
9. Inflect every noun and adjective in this section.
10. Form the theme of λαβών from the root.

Written Examination in Virgil—First Division.

Classical Department.

1. Translate the following :—*Necnon et vero noctem sermone trahebat infelix Dido, longumque bibebat amorem ! Multa super Priamo rogitans, super Hectore multa.*

Nunc quibus Aurorœ venisset filius armis.

Nunc quales Diomedis equi, nunc quantus Achilles.

2. Parse with the abridged form :—*Dido, quales, multa, trahebat, sermone.*
3. How many episodes in this book? what are they?
4. Translate the following :—

Ecce autem elapsus Pyrrhi de cæde Polites, unus natorum Priami, per tela, per hostes porticibus longis fugit, et vacua atria lustrat saucius ; illum ardens infesto vulnere Pyrrhus insequitur, jam jamque manu tenet, et premit hasta. Ut tandem ante oculos evasit et ora parentum, concidit ac multo vitam cum sanguine fudit.

5. Form into hexameter verse : *Implicuitque coruscam comam læva dextraque extulit ensem abdidit tenus ac lateri capulo.*
6. In Book III, translate from the 284th to the 300th line inclusive.
7. Define increments of nouns and verbs, and give examples of each.
8. Give the marked features of the 3d Book, contrasting it with the 4th.
9. Parse *jubes, verrunt, aere,* and *figo.*
10. Give a history of Dido.

Written Examination in Cicero—Second Division.

Classical Department.

1. Translate *Quamquam quid loquor ? Te ut ulla res frangat ? Tu ut unquam te corrigas ? Tu ut ullam fugam meditere ? Tu ut ullum exsilium cogites ? Est mihi tanti, Quirites, hujus invidiæ falsæ atque iniquæ tempestatem subire, dummodo a vobis hujus horribilis belli ac nefarii periculum depellatur.*
2. Parse *frangat* (full form).
3. What was the character of Cataline ?
4. Parse *tanti* and *sejungatur* (abridged form).
5. Translate *Hos, quos video, volitare in foro, quos stare ad curiam, quos etiam in senatum venire ; qui nitent unguentis, qui fulgent purpura, mallem secum suos milites eduxisset.*
6. Parse *fulgent* and *qui* (abridged form).
7. Give the argument of each oration.
8. Give the character of Cicero.
9. Translate *At etiam sunt, qui dicant, Quirites, a me in exsilium ejectum esse Catilinam. Quod ego si verbo assequi possem, istos ipsos ejicerem qui hæc loquuntur.*
10. Repeat the rules of Syntax for *dicant, ejicerem,* and *possem.*

Written Examination in Anabasis—First Division.

Classical Department.

1. Translate Book I, Chap. 9, Sections 1, 2, 3, 4.
2. Parse ἀνὴρ, παισὶ, ὅν.
3. Relate the circumstances to which οὕτως refers.
4. Give the history of the person referred to by Κῦρον τὸν ἀρχαῖον.
5. Translate Book II, Chap. 5, Sections 21, 22, 23.
6. Parse ἀνέβη, ξενικῷ and ἤλθομεν.
7. Give a brief synopsis of the three sections above.
8. Translate Book III, Chap. 1, Section 38.
9. Inflect all the anomalous nouns in the above section.
10. Compare and inflect all adjectives in the above section. Give a brief analysis of the first three books of the Anabasis.

Scientific and English Department—Examination in Astronomy, April 16, 1863.

Questions.

1. What three laws did Kepler discover?
2. What are the modes of a planet?
3. Why do the lengths of solar days vary?
4. What are the equinoxes and the solstices?
5. What are the moon's phases?
6. Describe the planet Jupiter.
7. Draw a figure and explain parallax.
8. When do eclipses of the moon take place?
9. Explain the general phenomena of the tides and their causes.
10. What is meant by the precession of the equinoxes?

Examination in Geometry, April 23, 1863.

Book IV: Proposition IV. Problem.
Book V: Proposition XV. Theorem.
Book VI: Proposition XX. Theorem.
Book VII: Proposition XVI. Theorem.
Book VIII: Proposition IX. Lemma.

Questions.

Under what conditions may triangles be proved similar?
Give the method of inscribing a regular decagon.
What is a cylinder?
How are cones generated?
Give the algebraic expression for the convex surface and also for the solidity of a cone.

Examination in Chemistry, April 22, 1863.

Questions.

1. Give two modes of preparing hydrogen.
2. Describe the oxy-hydrogen blow-pipe, and its uses.
3. What are the constituents of the atmosphere?
4. What are the compounds of nitrogen with oxygen?
5. What can you say of the allotropism of sulphur?
6. Give the properties of carbonic acid.
7. What is the old theory of combustion?
8. How did Lavoisier establish the true theory of combustion?
9. What is the chemistry of glass-making?
10. Give the chemical principles of photography.

ENGLISH AND SCIENTIFIC DEPARTMENT.

Intellectual Philosophy.

1. Explain the three functions ascribed to memory.
2. What kind of knowledge is most easily retained?
3. How is memory affected by the principles of association.
4. Give some methods of improving the memory.
5. What are first truths and how are they distinguished?
6. What is induction?
7. What are the rules governing circumstantial evidence?
8. Give some methods of improving the reasoning powers.
9. What is imagination?
10. What is the distinction between imagination and taste?

QUESTIONS RECENTLY SUBMITTED TO THE CANDIDATES FOR ADMISSION TO THE PROVIDENCE HIGH SCHOOL.*

EXAMINATION MAY 18TH AND 19TH, 1863.

Practical Arithmetic.

1. Divide $\frac{.03\frac{1}{4}}{24\frac{1}{2}}$ of $\frac{2}{.006\ 1\text{-}7}$ by $\frac{37\frac{1}{2}}{.0125}$ of $\frac{62}{.08\frac{1}{2}}$.

2. What is the least common multiple of $6\frac{1}{2}$, 8, 12, $16\frac{1}{4}$ and 28.

3. A merchant sold $\frac{1}{3}$ of his flour at an advance of twelve per cent.; $\frac{1}{4}$ at an advance of 10 per cent., and $\frac{1}{5}$ at a loss of 8 per cent. How should he sell the remainder so as to gain 5 per cent. on the whole?

4. A man bought a horse for $250. What must he ask for him that he may take 10 per cent. less than he asks, and yet make 15 per cent?

5. A man bought a horse and two carriages. For the first carriage he paid $250; and if this sum were added to what he paid for the horse it would amount to $\frac{2}{3}$ of the sum he paid for the second carriage; and if the sum he paid for the horse were added to the sum paid for the second carriage, it would amount to three times the sum paid for the first carriage. What did he pay for each?

6. A merchant bought 500 barrels of flour at $6\frac{1}{2}$ a barrel, and sold them immediately at $7\frac{1}{4}$ a barrel, and received in payment a note due three months hence, which he had discounted at a bank at 6 per cent. What did he gain on the flour.

7. A man bought 2400 bushels of corn at 90 cents a bushel; but in measuring it he found that he had more bushels than he paid for, and that he had gained $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. by the increase in the number of bushels. He sold the corn without delay for $1.10 per bushel. What did he gain per cent. by the whole transaction?

8. If A owes $500 due in 6 months, $400 due in 4 months, and $300 due in 9 months, and pays $\frac{2}{3}$ of the whole in 3 months, when ought the remainder to be paid?

9. A merchant sold a lot of flour for $500, and gained 25 per cent.; he then invested the proceeds in flour, on which he lost 20 per cent. Did he gain or lose by the transaction, and how much?

10. The base of a right-angled triangle is one-half of the sum of the perpendicular and hypothenuse, and the sum of the length of the three sides is 96 feet. What is the length of each side?

Mental Arithmetic.

1. There are two numbers, that if 4 times the greater be added to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the less, the sum will be 70, and $3\frac{1}{3}$ times the less is equal to $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the greater. What are the numbers?

---

* These questions indicate the point of attainment a scholar is expected to reach in the Grammar School by the age (say) of 14 years. It must be remembered that the questions have direct reference to particular "text-books," and particular "limits."

2. If 3-5 of the number of sheep A has, plus $\frac{2}{3}$ of the number B has, equals 320, and if $\frac{3}{4}$ of the number B has equals 3 times $\frac{3}{8}$ of the number A has, how many sheep has each?

3. A boy being asked the time of day, answered that the time past noon was 1-5 of the time to midnight. What was the time?

4. If 12 per cent. of what is received for goods is gain, what is the gain per cent.?

5. One-fifth is what per cent. of three-fourths?

6. When gold is worth 140 per cent., how many *whole* dollars in gold ought a broker to pay for a ten-dollar U. S. note, and how much in postage money?

7. A collector collects $157.50; how much must he pay his employer after reserving 5 per cent. for his services?

8. A can do a piece or work in $1\frac{1}{2}$ days; B can do the same work in $2\frac{1}{2}$ days; in what time can they both, working together, finish it?

9. A boy spent one-third of his money for apples, and 20 cents for nuts; he then gave 10 cents more than one-fourth of the remainder for oranges, when he found he had but fifty cents left. How many cents had he at first?

10. A's money is to B's as 3 to 4, but after A had gained $30 and B had lost $30, A's money is to B's as 4 to 3. What had each at first?

Grammar.

1. Give the rules for the use of the capital letters.

2. Give the rules for the formation of the plural.

3. Write the plural of *penny, pea, index, cousin-german, man-servant.*

N. B.—If either of the above words have more than one form for the plural, write both, and give the meaning of each.

4. Give the rules for the formation of the possessive case, and write the possessive of *conscience, cockatrice, Jones, men* and *boys.*

5. Name the relative pronouns and the words that are sometimes used as such, and when.

6. Name the principal parts of the following verbs: *fly, flee, hide, strike, work, pen, freeze.*

7. Name the defective verbs. State what part is wanting in each.

8. Analyze the following sentences, and parse the words in Italics.

"Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate,
All but the *page* prescribed their present *state.*"

"He walked his *horse one-half* of the *way home.*"

"He was not chosen *Rector*, but invited *only* to *preach.*"

9. Correct the following examples:

"I feel sure of its being him."

"Her aunt is older than her."

"I intended to have written, but was only prevented by sickness."

"He has fallen from his horse and broke his leg."

10. "Ye have heard that it hath been said, an *eye* for an eye and a *tooth* for a tooth." (Analyze, and parse words in Italics.)

Geography.

N. B.—To describe a river, state where it rises, in what direction it runs, and where it empties. To locate a town or city, state in what political division it is situated, and in what direction from four other important cities.

1. Name the rivers in the United States that flow into the Atlantic Ocean, beginning on the N.E.

2. Locate London, Liverpool, Bristol, Edinburgh and Glasgow, and give the latitude and longitude of each.

3. Locate Paris, Marseilles, Bordeaux, and Lyons.

4. Name and describe the rivers of Spain, and locate Madrid, Barcelona and Cadiz.

5. Name the political divisions of Asia, and give their capitals.

6. Locate St. Petersburgh, Rio Janeiro, Florence, Vienna, and Frankfort.

7. Name the principal rivers, mountains and lakes in Asia.

8. Describe the Rhine, the Rhone, and the Danube.

9. Name the political divisions of South America, and the capital of each.

10. Name the principal cities on the Baltic Sea and its inlets.

History.

1. Give an account of the settlement of Plymouth.
2. Give the date and the principal events of Queen Anne's war.
3. State the causes that led to the French and Indian War.
4. Give an account of the taking of Louisburg during the French and Indian War.
5. Name the immediate causes of the Revolutionary War, and state the object of the Stamp Act and Writs of Assistants.
6. Give an account of the first Continental Congress.
7. State the principal events of the year 1776, and give an account of the Battle of Long Island.
8. Name the principal events of 1778, and describe the Battle of Monmouth.
9. Name the principal events of 1780, and describe the Battle of Camden.
10. Give an account of the cessation of hostilities and the farewell orders of Washington.

Spelling—Fifty Words.

Elixir, zephyr, feasible, forcible, proximate, desperate, synchronical, conceptacle, conventicle, buoyancy, hypocrisy, flagitious, malicious, testaceous, fallacious, supplement, increment, crystalline, cylinder, idiosyncrasy, permeate, pursuivant, pursuance, architrave, archetype, phylactery, diaphanous, epiphany, surcharge, peripneumony, paregoric, omniscient, niche, cuneiform, sibylline, orthoëpy, inoculate, innocuous, ineligible, cynical, ventricle, architect, commercial, controversial, ecclesiastes, strategic, schedule, collateral, therapeutics, gases.

APPENDIX E.

Forms of Returns required to be annually sent

1. By the School-Committee of a township in Massachusetts to the Secretary of the Board of Education.
2. By the Trustees of an Incorporated Academy in New York to the Board of Regents of the University.

DUPLICATE.

*** *This* Blank Form, *duly filled and signed, with* two printed copies *of the* Report *of the School Committee, to be returned to the* Secretary of the Board of Education, *on or before the last day of April,* 1865.

Inquiries to be answered in respect to the Public Schools, &c. in the Township of for the School-Year 1864-5.

[The Abstracts of the Returns of School Committees printed in the Annual Reports of the Secretary (Appendix) show the manner in which the following inquiries should be answered.]

Committees are desired to note the directions given, to prevent mistakes and sending back their returns for correction, and the consequent loss by the township of its share of income of the State School Fund.

1. Number of Legal School Districts.
2. Number of Public Schools.
    1. Number of Common District Schools.
    2. Number of Primary Schools.
    3. Number of Intermediate (between Primary and Grammar) Schools.
    4. Number of Grammar Schools.

    If the Grammar Schools are divided into separate departments (as higher and lower, or senior and junior), state the number of such departments.

5. If there has been an Evening School for Adults, supported at public expense, state attendance of } Males. Females. Average Attendance.

3. Number of School Registers needed for one year.
There are three sizes for schools kept *two terms* in the year—1st, for schools of 40; 2d, for 80; 3d, for 160. } 1st size. 2d size. 3d size.
One Register is sent for each school, and is expected to be sufficient for one entire year.
There are three sizes for schools kept *three terms* in the year—1st, for schools of 40; 2d, for 80; 3d, for 160. } 1st size. 2d size. 3d size.
State the number of the above sizes needed, if any.
An *annual* supply is furnished, and generally *one registered to each school*, unless a special reason is given for furnishing more.

4. Has the Township made the provisions and arrangements concerning Truants and Absentees required by law? Act Chap. 207, 1862.

5. Number of different Scholars, of all ages, in all the Public Schools in Summer.

6. Number of different Scholars, of all ages, in all the Public Schools in Winter.

7. Average attendance in all the Public Schools in Summer.
Add the average attendance in all the schools in Summer together, and return the aggregate. The aggregate of average attendance in all the schools divided by the number of schools, is NOT the result desired.

8. Average attendance in all the Public Schools in Winter.
Add the average attendance in all the schools in Summer together, and return the aggregate.
Some Committees divide the average attendance by the number of schools, and return the result, which is *not* the answer desired.
Some Committees give wrong answers to the two previous inquiries, notwithstanding the above plain directions.

9. Number attending within the year under 5 years of age.

10. Number attending within the year over 15 years of age.

11. Number of persons in the township on the 1st of May, 1864, between 5 and 15 years of age.
Persons *over* 15, and not 16, are not to be reckoned as "*between* 5 and 15."

12. Number of Male Teachers in the Public Schools in Summer.
Assistants to be included in returning the number of Teachers.

13. Number of Female Teachers in the Public Schools in Summer.

14. Number of Male Teachers in the Public Schools in Winter.

15. Number of Female Teachers in the Public Schools in Winter.

16. Whole number of different Male Teachers employed in the Public Schools in the course of the school-year.

17. Whole number of different Female Teachers employed in the Public Schools in the course of the school-year.

18. Aggregate of months all the Public Schools have been kept in Summer.
Vacations not to be included. Reckon only the days and half-days that the schools have been in session, and 20 days to a month.
Answer in months and days,—express the fractions of a month in days.
When the schools are annual, some Committees return only the time *each* school has been kept, which is a wrong answer.

19. Aggregate of months all the Public Schools have been kept in Winter.
Vacations not to be included. Reckon only the days and half-days that the schools have been in session, and 20 days to a month.
Answer in months and days,—express the fractions of a month in days.
Return *not* the time of *one* school, or the average of the schools, but the aggregate time of all the schools.
The two last inquiries, though important, are often incorrectly answered through the oversight or neglect of Committees.

20. Average length of the Public Schools—schools supported at the public expense, and under the supervision of the School Committee.
To make up this average find the average of the Winter and Summer Schools separately, and add the two. Proceed in a similar way where the school-year is divided into three or more terms.

21. Average wages per month of Male Teachers in Public Schools.
Include board, if gratuitously furnished by "boarding round," or in any way as a part of the Teacher's compensation.
Include salaries of Teachers of the High School, if any, in the average per month.
Give the answers in dollars and cents,—fractions of a dollar in cents.
Some Committees omit to include board when given by Districts in consideration of the Teacher's services, which is an error.
Reckon months exclusive of vacations, or only the time actually spent in teaching.

Average wages per month of Female Teachers in Public Schools.
Include board, &c., as in answer to the previous inquiry.

23. Amount of Money raised by the Township in Taxes for the support of Public Schools, including only Wages, Board, Fuel for the Schools, and care of the Fires and School-rooms, for the School-year 1864-5.
Board, Fuel, and Money voluntarily given to prolong a Public School, NOT to be included in this answer, but in the next.
Return only the amount which the Township voted to raise by Tax, including the sum raised by Tax for a High School, if any.
Committees sometimes add the value of board furnished gratuitously by Districts to the money raised by Tax, which makes the return illegal.

24. Amount of Voluntary Contributions, in Money, Board, and Fuel, to maintain or prolong the Public Schools, or to purchase apparatus.
Include value of Board when Teachers "board round," and when board is given by friends.
Board and Fuel, furnished gratuitously, to be valued in money, and all the contributions stated in one sum.

25. Expense of Superintendence by the School Committee, or by a Superintendent, and of publishing the School Reports.
State all in one sum.

26. Amount of Local Funds, the income of which, according to the terms of the donation, can be appropriated only to the support of Schools and Academies. Principal. Income.
If funds are invested in Real Estate and yield an income in money, return the estimated value of the property as principal, and the receipts as income.

27. Income of Surplus Revenue and of other Funds appropriated to Public Schools, which may be so appropriated, or not, at the option of the Township.
Give the Income merely, when actually appropriated to Public Schools.
Income of Funds that MUST be appropriated to schools as a condition of holding the donation, not to be given in answer to this, but to the previous question. The Township's share of the Income of the State School Fund NOT to be included in this answer.

28. Is there a High School taught by a teacher qualified to teach the Latin and Greek Languages, and kept for the benefit of the whole township?

29. Is such High School supported by Taxation? if not, how?

30. How many months in the year is such High School, if any, kept?

31. Salary of the Principal of such High School, if any, for the year?
Salary of Assistants need not be returned.

32. Number of Incorporated Academies.

33. Average attendance for the year in Incorporated Academies.
No return desired of those who go out of the township to school, except where the Academies are located.

34. Amount of Tuition paid in Incorporated Academies.
Not including the amount paid out of township.

35. Number of Unincorporated Academies and Private Schools.
Not to include schools kept to prolong Public Schools, and open to all.

36. Estimated average attendance for the year in Unincorporated Academies and Private Schools.
Return, not the average of each, but of all in one amount.
No return desired of pupils attending school in another township.
Though no registers are kept, a return should be made, and according to some estimate.

37. Estimated amount of Tuition paid in Unincorporated Academies and Private Schools.
Not including amount paid in other townships.

38. To what purpose was the sum received from the State School Fund, and payable on and after July 10, 1864, appropriated?
The sum received from the State School Fund need not be returned.

39. Names of Teachers in Public Schools in 1864-5, or from April 1864, to April, 1865.
Insert names on the back of this sheet at the bottom of the page.

40. Number and Names of School Committee elected and serving for 1864-5.
Insert names on the back of this sheet, at the bottom of the page.

School Committee.

To be signed by all or a part of the Committee.

[If Committees omit (as they sometimes do) to fill the blanks in the follow-

ing Certificate, it is void, because the facts required are not certified according to the Statute, although given in the returns above. Only the facts in the Certificate are sworn to.]

*** The form of the following Certificate is prescribed by law, and Committees therefore are not to alter or amend it. An altered form, though filled and sworn to, would not answer the requisitions of the law, and would endanger the Township's share of the Income of the School Fund. To be signed and sworn to by a majority of the School Committee, or it is void. If the number of the Committee is 13, or more, the signature and oath of the Chairman and Secretary of the Committee are sufficient.

We, the School Committee of do certify, that from the returns made by the assessors in the year 1864, it appears that on the 1st day of May in the year 1864, there were belonging to said Township the number of persons between the ages of 5 and 15 years; and we further certify, that the said Township raised [by taxation] the sum of * Dollars, for the support of Public Schools for the preceding school-year [1864-5], including only the wages and board of teachers, fuel for the schools, and care of fires and school-rooms.

School Committee.

To be signed according to directions immediately above.

SS.

On this day of , A.D. 1865, personally appeared the above-named School Committee of the Township of and made oath that the above Certificate, by them subscribed, is true. Before me,

Justice of the Peace.

* As this blank is to be filled with "the sum" which the "Township has raised," the sum returned is not to include Voluntary Contributions given by INDIVIDUALS or DISTRICTS, but merely the amount raised by the Township, in its corporate capacity, by taxation.

FORM OF THE ANNUAL REPORTS OF ACADEMIES.

To the Regents of the University of the State of New York.

The trustees of established at in the county of

Respectfully Report:

That the condition of their academy on the* day of 18 , in respect to the several subject matters required to be reported on by them, was as follows:

ACADEMIC PROPERTY.

For a particular statement of their academic lot, building, library and apparatus, and for a general statement of their property, and of title, incumbrances and debts, the trustees refer to their report (or application) to the regents, bearing date on or about the day of

The property described in the report or application above referred to, remains, in respect to quantity, title, improvements, condition, value, debts, incumbrances, &c., as stated or referred to under the following heads:

1. GROUND FOR ACADEMIC BUILDINGS.

The lot of ground on which the academy buildings stand remains the same as at the date of the report or application above referred to.*

Present value of grounds, - - $

2. ACADEMY BUILDINGS.

The buildings on the academy grounds remain the same as at the date of the report or application before referred to.

Present value of buildings, - - $

* Here insert the day on which the academic year terminates.

† Or if any change has taken place by purchase, or improvement of grounds, or by erection, improvement, or repairs of buildings, or loss by fire, or decay, or otherwise, make exceptions.

3. Academy Library.

Title or name of books arranged according to catalogue in use.	Number of volumes.	Original cost.	Present value.
		$	$
At date of last Report - - -			
* Added since - - - -			

† Books Received from the State.

‡ Natural History of New York, - - - - Vols.
§ Documentary History, - - - - - ,,
Documents relating to Colonial History - - ,,
Journal of the Legislative Council of New York - - ,,
Meteorology of New York, - - - - ,,
Catalogue of the State Library, - - - - ,,
Regents' Reports, - - - - - - ,,
Other Books, - - - - - - ,,

4. *Philosophical Apparatus.*

Description or name of each article.	Original cost.	Present value.
	$	$
At Date of last Report - - -		
Added since - - - -		

5. *Title to Property.*

The title to the academy lot, building, library and apparatus remains the same as at the date of the report or application before referred to, and the said property is now actually held by the trustees as a permanent endowment, subject to no other trust that that of promoting education.

6. *Other Academic Property.*

The property of the academy, other than the academy lot, buildings, library, and apparatus above described or referred to, consists of

Bonds and mortgages considered good, - - - -$
Notes, - - - - - - - -
Tuition bills uncollected, - - - - - -
Furniture, not fixtures, - - - - - -
Real estate, other than academy lot, &c., - - - -
Cash in treasurer's hand as per cash account, - - - -
Other property not included in the above (as follows:

Total - - - - - $

* Give a catalogue of all books and apparatus added during the year. Add each column and deduct the number and value of whatever has been damaged or lost.
† Give a list of all books received, and not those received during the last year only.
‡ Of the Natural History 20 volumes have been published.
§ The Documentary History, and Documents relating to the Colonial History, are distinct works. Of the former there are four volumes; of the latter 10.
‖ If this statement requires any qualifications, state particulars; and especially if there be any trust, or understanding expressed or implied, that the property is in any contingency to revert to the original grantor, or to go to other persons, or to be applied to other uses.

7. *Debts and Incumbrances.*

The debts contracted by the academy, which remained unpaid on the said day of including all arrears of interest, and all outstanding or unpaid accounts acknowledged as debts, were as follows:

Mortgage on academy lot, &c.,	$
Do. on other property,	
Treasurer's notes,	
Due teachers,	
Balance due treasurer as per cash account,	
Other debts (as follows),	
Total,	$

8. *Summary Statements.*

The total value of all academic property above described is as follows:

Present value of academy lot and buildings	$
Present value of library, consisting of volumes	
Present value of philosophical apparatus,	
Value of lot, building, library and apparatus,	
Value of other property as stated under sixth head,	
Total value of all the property of academy,	$
Deduct for debts as stated under seventh head,	
Balance, showing value over and above all debts,	$

9. *Certificate of Committee on Library.*

The undersigned, a committee appointed by the trustees for that purpose, have, since the close of the academic year, carefully examined the books and apparatus belonging to the academy, and have compared them with the original catalogues or inventories, and with former examinations, and find the books and apparatus to be in the following condition.*

Committee of Examination.

10. *General Cash Account for the Year ending on the said Day of* 18

Balance from last Report and Cash received during the Year.

Balance of cash on hand at the close of the last previous year's account,	$
Cash, since received on the following accounts, viz.:	
†For tuition,	
For principal of permanent or other funds,	
For interest on do.	
For room rent, or rent of academic property,	
From the regents of the university, viz:	
For annual apportionment from literature fund,	
For purchase of books and apparatus,	
For educating teachers of common schools,	
From (here specify the source, if any, from which any other money was received during said year):	
Total cash received,	$
Balance due to the treasurer for amounts overpaid by him, to be carried by him to next year's account,	
	$

* State the condition of the library and apparatus in regard to books and articles being present, and in a proper state for use—and whether suitable rooms and cases are provided for their preservation, and due care exercised in their use. Give a list of books and articles lost, destroyed, or injured, and state the amount of injury or loss. The committee must be others than the Principal and teachers, and the examination not a mere form. Let the statement of the examination be signed by the committee.

† In case the Principal of any academy receives the tuition of pupils as his compensation and that of the other teachers, such amount should be reported to the treasurer and entered on his books as cash received and paid.

Balance from last Report and Cash Paid during the Year.

Balance due to the treasurer at the close of last year's account,
Cash since paid, on the following accounts:
For salaries or compensation of teachers, - - - - $
For principal of debts due from academy, - - - -
For interest do. do. - - - -
For repairs to buildings or other property belonging to the academy,
For fuel and all other incidental expenses not included in the above,
For dividends (if any) to stockholders, being at the rate of per cent. on their stock, - - - - - -
For purchases of books and apparatus with money granted by the regents, or raised by subscription or donation, - - -
For (here state the account, if any, on which any other money was paid during the year), - - - - - -

Total cash paid, - - - - $
Balance of cash in treasurer's hands, to be carried to the next year's account, - - - - - - - -

$

The preceding is a true statement of the receipts and payments of money for the year above named; which, with the vouchers in support thereof, having been submitted to the undersigned, a committee of accounts duly appointed by the trustees of said academy, was on the day of duly audited by them and found to be correct, and is hereby so certified.*

Auditing Committee.

Revenue and Expenditure for the Year ending on the said Day of 18

Revenue received.†

Amount of revenue received during said year, and collected or considered collectable, from the following sources, viz:
From tuition collected, or considered collectable, - - $
From interest or income of property, real or personal, including room rent accrued during said year, and collected, or considered collectable, - - - - - - - - -
From the regents of the university, - - - - -
For annual apportionment from the literature fund, - -
For educating teachers of common schools, - - - -
From (here state any other source of annual revenue, if such there be,

Total revenue, - - - - $
Balance, being excess of expenditure over revenue for said year, -

Expenditures incurred.

Amount paid or payable on liabilities incurred during said year on the following accounts, viz.:

* The account for which the above is intended to be a form, being a simple cash account, must contain entries of all cash actually received and paid, and nothing else. The account must be added up, balanced, and audited, before it is inserted in the report.

† The revenue side of the account should include only what accrued during the particular year referred to. Anything received in that year for arrears accrued in former years should not be included; the object of the statement being to show the true amount of revenue accrued (whether paid or unpaid) for the particular year to which it refers, in order to enable the regents to compare annual revenue with annual expenditures.

So also of the expenditures, the account should include only what was paid or payable on liabilities incurred by the academy for the particular year mentioned in the statement. Anything paid in that year on account of liabilities contracted or incurred in former years, should be included in the general cash account, but not in the account of revenue here stated; the design of this account being to show the true amount of expenditures or liabilities incurred (whether actually paid or not) during the particular year to which it relates, in order to enable the regents to compare annual expenditures with annual revenue, to see if the academy be falling in debt or otherwise.

If any of the items of income or expenditure for any particular year happen to be either greater or less than the average for common years, the case should be stated according to the fact.

When the stockholders of any academy have acquired by the terms of their subscription to its stock a right to free scholarship, that fact should be here stated with the number and duration of such rights, the price or consideration paid therefor, and the number of students attending the academy during said year who claimed and were allowed free tuition by virtue of such rights.

For salaries or compensation of teachers - - - -
For interest accrued during said year on debts due from academy -
For rent (if any) accrued during said year, for property leased to academy - - - - - - - -
For repairs of building, or other property belonging to the academy, during said year - - - - - - - -
For fuel and other incidental expenses incurred during said year -
For dividends * (if any) declared on the capital stock of the academy, during said year, being at the rate of per cent. on the amount of said stock which is $ - - - - -
From (here state other annual expenses if any) - - -

Total expenditure - - $
Balance, being excess of revenues over expenditures for said year -

$

12. *Money received from Literature Fund.*

The moneys † received from the literature fund for the last year, as stated in the preceding part of this report, under the head of revenue, together with all balances (if any) of such moneys received in former years, and suffered to remain on hand unexpended, have been expended during the last year, or are accounted for as follows:—

13. *Money Raised and Granted for the Purchase of Books and Apparatus.*

Amount raised by the trustees - - - - $
Amount received from the regents - - - - -

Total - - - - $
Which has been expended as follows:
In the purchase of books (see No. 3) - - - -
In the purchase of apparatus (see No. 4) - - - -

$

14. *Teachers.*

The whole number of teachers employed in said academy on the said day of or during the year ending on that day was , of whom are males, and females; and of whom have declared their intention to make teaching a permanent profession.

The names, ages, and professional education of said teachers, the time each has been engaged in teaching, the department of instruction, and the annual salary of each, are as follows:—‡

15. § *Employment of Teachers.*

16. *Subjects of Study Pursued, and Class or Text-book used.*

The subjects of study pursued in said academy, during said year, including classical and all others, with the class or text-books used on each subject or study, were as follows:—

(1.) *Ordinary Elementary Studies. Text-Books.*

Arithmetic.
Book-keeping,
Composition,
Declamation,
Elocution,
English language (grammar),
English language (dictionary),
Geography,
Orthography,
Pronunciation (standard),
Reading Books.

* No academy is permitted to make dividends while any outstanding indebtedness against the institution exists.

† All moneys thus granted must be expended in the payment of teachers' salaries, and can not be otherwise applied.

‡ Let the names, &c., of all teachers employed during any part of the year be stated, and do not refer to preceding reports.

§ Under this head, if the trustees pay fixed salaries to the teachers, or if any contract exists by which the teachers receive the use of buildings and other academic property and tuition as their compensation, let the facts be stated; and in the latter case state the terms of the contract under which they are employed, and the powers which are retained and exercised by the trustees, particularly in regard to the employment and compensation of teachers, the course of instruction and discipline, control over buildings, &c.

(2.) *Mathematics and Natural Philosophy and their Application.*

Algebra,	Levelling
Astronomy,	Logarithms,
Calculus (integral),	Mensuration,
Calculus (differential),	Natural Philosophy,
Conic Sections,	Navigation,
Engineering (civil),	Perspective,
Geometry (plane and solid),	Surveying,
Geometry (analytical),	Technology,
Geometry (descriptive),	Trigonometry.

(3.) *Ancient Languages.*

Greek Language (grammar),	Latin Language (grammar),
„ Reader,	„ Reader,
Grecian Antiquities,	Roman Antiquities,
Greek Prose Composition,	Mythology.
Hebrew Language (grammar),	

(4.) *Modern Languages.*

French Language (grammar),	Italian Language (grammar),
German „ „	Spanish „ „

(5.) *Natural Sciences.*

Anatomy,	Meteorology,
Botany,	Mineralogy,
Chemistry,	Natural History,
Chemistry (Agricultural),	Physiology,
Geology,	Zoology,
Hygiene,	

(6.) *Moral, Intellectual, and Political Science.*

Criticism,	Philosophy (Intellectual),
Christianity (Evidences of),	Philosophy (Moral),
History (General),	Political Economy,
History of the United States,	Rhetoric,
Law and Government,	Teaching (Principles of),
Logic,	Domestic Economy.
Natural Theology,	

17. *Number of Students.**

(A.) The whole number of students (including classical and all others), taught in the academy during the term ending on the day of 18 , was
„ „ was
„ „ was

Sum of attendance -

Average attendance of terms -

(B.) The whole number * of students (including classical and all others), taught in the academy during the year ending on the said day of 18 , was , whose average age was

(C.) The number of academic students belonging to the academy on the said day of 18 , or who belonged to it during part of the year ending on that day, and who are claimed by the trustees to have pursued for four months of said year, or upwards, classical studies, or the higher branches of English education, or both, was of whom were males, whose average was years, and were females, whose average age was years.

A schedule of the names, ages, and studies of the said students, so claimed by the said trustees to have pursued classical studies, or the higher branches of

* Insert the number of *individuals* taught—not the sum of those taught during the several terms. The same pupil must not be twice counted.

English education, or both, is hereunto annexed, and having been examined and certified by a committee of the trustees specially appointed for that purpose, and duly verified by the oath of the principal, as required by the law of the State and the ordinance of the regents, is believed by the trustees to be true, and is adopted by them.

18. *Prices or Rates of Tuition.*

The prices charged for tuition in said academy during said year were as follows:—

Common English studies - - - - per annum
Mathematical and higher English - - - „
Classical, including all the preceding - - - „
Extra charges for tuition - - - - „

19. *Gratuitous Instruction.*

20. *Academic Terms, Vacations, Examinations, &c.*

The year is divided into terms of weeks each.
The first term commences and closes
„ second „ „ „
„ third „ „ „
„ fourth „ „ „
There are vacations as follows:—

From the close of the first term			weeks.
„	„	second „	„
„	„	third „	„
„	„	fourth „	„
		Total weeks vacation - - - - -	

Examinations and public exhibitions are held as follows:—

21. *Summary Statement of the Average Expenses of Students in the Academy, for Tuition, Board, &c., for a single Year.*

The rates charged for different grades of tuition, being as stated under No 18, the average of those rates for a single student for a single year, is - - - - - - - - $
The average price of board in the vicinity of the academy for students from abroad, being at the rate of $ per week, amounts, for a single academic year, to - - - - - - -

Whole amount chargeable for tuition and board for a single academic year - - - - - - - - $

22. *Physical Education.*

23. *Officers of the Board of Trustees.*

President,	Treasurer,
Vice-President,	Secretary.

24. *Certificate of Committee on the Schedule above Referred to.*

The undersigned, a committee of the trustees of specially appointed for that purpose, hereby certify that they have examined the annexed schedule of the names, ages, and studies, of the students therein named, that they have compared the same with the registers and class books of the said academy, that they find the same to correspond with the said registers and class books, from which it appears that all the scholars named in the said schedule were academic scholars, and pursued the studies named therein; and they verily believe all the statements in the said schedule to be true, and recommend its adoption by the trustees of the academy. Signed.

Committee.

* The certificate of the Committee and the affidavit of the Principal must both be executed before the schedule is adopted by the trustees.

25. *Conclusion and Authentication of Report.*

The preceding report, from Academy, was submitted to the trustees of said academy, at a meeting legally held by them on the day of 18 , at which meeting the following named trustees were present; being a legal quorum of said board of trustees; and having been read and approved, it was duly adopted at said meeting as the report of said academy, and ordered, (after being verified by the oath of the presiding officer at said meeting, and a copy or abstract thereof being entered on the minutes of its proceedings or placed among its valuable papers) to be transmitted to the regents of the university, pursuant to the provisions of their ordinance in such case made and provided.

All which is hereby done in obedience to said order, this day of 18 .

Signed President
of Academy.

Affidavit of Presiding Officer of Trustees.

County of ss.

being duly deposeth and saith, that he is one of the trustees of academy (whose annual report to the regents of the university immediately precedes this affidavit); that he officiated as the presiding officer at the meeting of the trustees of said academy, referred to in the concluding part of said report; and that the schedule hereunto annexed, of the names, ages, and studies of the students claimed, as stated therein, was submitted to the trustees at said meeting, duly certified by their committee, and verified by the oath of the principal, and that the statement of facts set forth in the said report is in all respects true, as he verily believes; and further that a copy of said report (or an abstract thereof) is on file among the valuable papers of the academy.

Subscribed and sworn before me, this day of 18 . }

Affidavit of the Principal.

County of ss.

being duly sworn, deposes and says that during the year ending on the he was principal instructor of academy; that each and every of the students whose names are stated in the following schedule referred to in the annexed report of the trustees of said academy, before commencing the studies therein named, had passed the examination required by the ordinance of the regents, and were duly registered as academic scholars on the registers of this academy, or held certificates of such examination and registry in some other academy in this State; that they pursued the studies named in the schedule during the time also named therein; and that all the statements of the said schedule, so far as the same are properly within the personal knowledge of this deponent as principal of said academy, are true; and that those not properly within his personal knowledge, he verily believes to be true.

Signed Principal of
Academy.

Subscribed and sworn before me, this day of 18 . }

Schedule of the Principal of the Academy.

The following is the statement (referred to in the annexed report from) of the names, ages, and studies of the Academic Students of the said academy, claimed by the trustees thereof to have pursued for four months or upwards of the year mentioned in said report, classical studies, or the higher branches of English education, or both, according to the true intent and meaning of the ordinance of the regents, with a specification of the different studies pursued by each of said students, and the length of time the same were pursued in each quarter or term of said year, said studies being designated by the ordinary name or title of the book or treatise studied, and the part or portion of each book so studied being also stated, with the time spent in studying the same during each of said terms.

ANNUAL REPORT TO THE REGENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF THE NAMES, AGES, AND STUDIES OF THE PUPILS OF ACADEMY.

	Name of Pupil.	Age.	Term from To Weeks.	Term from To Weeks.	Term from To Weeks.
1	A. B.	16	Thomson's Higher Arithmetic, 280 pp., 14 w. Youman's Chemistry, 250 pp., 14 w. Davies's Bourdon, 232, pp., 14 w.	Thomson's U. Arithmetic, reviewed 14 w. Davies's Legendre, 3 books, 14 w. Parker's Natural Philosophy, 230 pp, 14 w.	
2	C. D.	14	Bourdon as No. 1. 14 w. Hooker's Natural History complete, 14 w. Burritt's Astronomy, 180, pp. 14 w.		Wayland's Moral Science complete, 14 w. Loomie's Geology, complete, 14 w. Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, 14 w.
3	E. F.	17	Chemistry as No. 1, 14 w. Natural History as No. 2, 14 w. Robinson's U. Algebra, 126. pp. 14, w.		Same as No. 2.
4	G. H.	19		3 Books Virgil's Æneid, 14 w. 1 Book Xenophon's Anabasis, 14 w. Legendre as No. 1. 14 w.	Cicero's Orations against Catiline, 14 W. 3 Books Anabasis, 14 w. Legendre, through plane Geometry, 14 w.

APPENDIX F.

ON EVENING SCHOOLS.

Evening schools only found in cities and towns.

The value of Evening Schools is universally appreciated in the States, and the necessity of their establishment generally admitted, though it cannot be said that they are a universal feature in the system of common schools. They are found almost exclusively in cities and large towns. I doubt if such a thing as an evening school in a country district can be found. Flourishing evening schools are reported in the cities of New York, Brooklyn, Providence, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Louis; in New Bedford, Fall River, Lawrence, and Springfield, Mass.; and, indeed, it is said that "in nearly every "large city in the country evening schools have become established and recog- "nized as an essential part of the educational system."* In New Haven there are none, and the Superintendent told me that, from the character of the population, he thought none were required. In Boston, strange to say, there are none either, but the School Committee regard their non-existence as a defect which they hope will soon be supplied.†

* *Massachusetts 28th Report, School Committee's Report*, p. 5.

† "Another important question which should engage the attention of the Board is the establishment of schools for the instruction of those of maturer years, whose necessary occupations prevent their attendance at the Public Schools, or whose age renders it unsuitable, but who are greatly in need of elementary instruction. . . . However abundant may be the educational facilities, there must always be, in a community like this, a *large proportion* who, while they most need them, are least able to avail themselves of the benefits of the Public Schools. Poverty and the necessity of labouring for their daily food compel many to leave school long before they have been able to acquire even a rudimentary education, and prevent others who have never enjoyed these advantages in earlier life, from now obtaining them. To all of these their evenings afford the only opportunities for obtaining the benefits of education. . . When other cities throughout the continent have set the example and demonstrated the value of free public evening schools, shall Boston remain any longer unconscious of her duties to the suffering classes in our midst?" (*Ibid.*)

The Massachusetts School-law sanctions the establishment of such schools, as parts of the general system. "Any township may establish and maintain in addition to the schools required "by law to be maintained therein, schools for the education of persons over 15 years of age; "may determine the term or terms of time in each year, and *the hours of the day or evening* "during which such school may be kept; and appropriate such sums of money as may be "necessary for the support thereof. When a school is so established, the School Committee "shall have the same superintendence over it, as they have over other schools, and shall deter- "mine what branches of learning may be taught therein." (*Statutes of* 1857, ch. 38, s. 7, 8. *24th Report*, p. 94.)

Their object to give elementary instruction.

The declared object of these schools is the same as that of most evening schools among ourselves. They do not attempt secondary education; they still deal with the elements of knowledge only. "Their great end and "aim is to enable those who would otherwise be absolutely unable to obtain "it to receive *the simplest instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic.* By "means of these schools it is sought to save a large class amongst us and the "community of which they are members, from just so much of ignorance and "its consequent evils."* Occasionally the programme includes the subjects of geography and grammar, but without much power of attracting students; indeed, some omit even writing and arithmetic, and devote their whole time and attention to reading and spelling only. At Fall River it is thought a considerable achievement to be able to report, "Some have advanced in "arithmetic as far as cube-root," and "a class of four in book-keeping." In the female department, where the results are said to have been "equally satis- "factory," none advanced so far even as this.†

Suggestion of an Evening High School.

In Cincinnati, it is true, where it is felt "that the future growth, wealth, and power of the city must depend upon its manufactures," an attempt was made in 1857 to establish, or at least a programme was sketched out for the establishment of "A Central Night School of the Arts and Sciences," which should form a sort of High School to the other Evening Schools, which were to be properly graded and subordinated to it. The report of the recommenders of the school was unanimously adopted, and the law is stated "to allow of the opening of night schools of every grade for about half the "year." I did not, however, become cognizant of the scheme till after I had left Cincinnati, as of course it was not at work in July, and I am not in possession of any information either as to whether it was adopted, or has operated with success.‡

Factory Acts inoperative.

* *Massachusetts 28th Report* (*School Committees' Report*), p. 5. Much of this ignorance, which is sometimes supposed not to exist in the United States, or at least not in Massachusetts, is attributed to the inoperativeness of the Factory Acts. The School Committee of Fall River say: "The subject of educating our factory operatives presents a serious problem. "The special schools have been well attended when the factories were not in operation, but "when they started up the schools were immediately deserted. *There is a very large class "who never advance beyond the Primary in our public schools. By the time they are eight or "nine years of age they go to the mills. The law on the subject is wholly inoperative.* Neither "the owners nor their agents hire them—they do not know they are at work there; they are "taken in by those who work by the piece or job; often it is the parent, or the brother, or the "sister that takes them in as helpers. The owners or agents cannot be reached as the law now "is, and the thing can only be corrected by reaching them, if at all. . . . That these children "are not indifferent to the opportunities of acquiring some amount of education is manifest "from the eagerness with which they rush to the evening school when opened each year. "Hundreds come under the age of 16, and many not over 10, to improve the scanty opportunity "that affords" (*Ibid.* p. 191).

† "*Almost all* studied arithmetic: most of them written arithmetic. All attended to writing" (*Ibid.*) "The branches pursued in these schools were reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, "geography, and English Grammar. All of the scholars attended to reading and spelling; "*nearly all* to arithmetic and writing, while the number in geography and grammar was very "small. The progress of the scholars was in a high degree satisfactory; in reading many "scholars, *at first entirely unacquainted with the language*, learned to read intelligently and "fluently: in penmanship new beginners learned to write a fair and legible hand: in arith- "metic still more flattering results were achieved" (*St. Louis Report for* 1864, p. 44). "Hitherto," says the Cincinnati Report for 1857 (p. 137), "our night schools have aimed at "a plain education only."

Cincinnati Central Night School of Arts and Sciences.

‡ *See 28th Cincinnati Report*, p. 138. The suggested programme was as follows: "Let the "school be made up of three grades, to cover a period of three years; one year to each grade, "to begin on the first Monday in October and close on the last Friday in March; opening "the school at 7 o'clock and closing at 9.30 p.m. for each evening of the week except Saturday "and the Sabbath."

The course of study should be for the FIRST YEAR, THIRD GRADE; the grade to be formed of youth of both sexes, who shall be liable to pass a satisfactory examination in spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and the elements of English grammar. The course of study of this grade—algebra, geometry, book-keeping (single entry), drawing, writing, and vocal music. To pass to the second grade a satisfactory proficiency must be exhibited in these studies.

SECOND YEAR, SECOND GRADE—Chemistry, natural philosophy, botany and natural history, geology and astronomy, drawing and vocal music. In this grade the scholars shall recite from text-books on the course of study, so as to become acquainted with symbols, formulæ, definitions, classifications, &c., of the above sciences, the teacher drilling them on the black-board, and employing all such illustrations as he can command.

THIRD YEAR, FIRST GRADE—In this grade the course of study of the second grade, embracing now anatomy and physiology, shall be taught by lectures and illustrations, the whole grade being brought together for each subject. Lecturers would have to be appointed on chemistry and natural philosophy, botany and natural history, geology and astronomy, anatomy and physiology.

In the second and third grades the average number of pupils to each teacher was to be 35.

Similarly, in New York, it is thought that evening schools might "be rendered much more "efficient by the exclusion of children of tender years, by a more systematic classification, and "the introduction of a regular course of study, and by the organization of one or more schools "especially designed for the more advanced class of pupils, and for those who are desirous of

Cost, how defrayed.

The cost of these night schools is defrayed from various sources. In some cases, as at New York and St. Louis, they are entirely free, form part of the general school organization, and are maintained out of the local appropriations. Elsewhere they are enterprises of private benevolence, often in connexion with some religious community; the teachers are unpaid volunteers; the town perhaps lends a building for the purpose, and makes a small vote of money for incidental expenses.* In San Francisco a payment of one dollar a month—that is, for 20 nights' schooling—is exacted from scholars over 18.† To boys below that age the schools are free.

Range of expenditure.

The range of expenditure is very wide. It varies from about one dollar per scholar enrolled in Chicago, through $2.16 at St. Louis, to as high as (in some cases) $20 in New York. The total cost in St. Louis for the evening instruction (nominally) of 1,021 scholars was $2,230; in New York, for the instruction of 20,546 scholars of both sexes, it was $76,731; in Chicago, where the enrolment was 483, the amount paid for salary of teachers was $389. The proportion of teachers to scholars seems to be the great element affecting this question of cost. The greatest number of scholars to a teacher in New York was 38; the smallest 9.

Age of pupils.

At Chicago no pupil is admitted under 12. In New York, of the 20,000 and odd enrolled, 4,694 were under 12 years of age, and 14,732 under 16. Only 1,956 were over 21. In New York the law has undergone, in the opinion of the Assistant-Superintendent specially charged with the supervision of this department, an unwise practical relaxation. "Originally opened for boys over "14 years of age, who had left the day school and entered into business, or for "men who had not enjoyed educational advantages in their childhood, the "former being required to bring with them their parent or guardian before "their names could be recorded, the schools have since undergone changes so "that any can enter no matter how young they may be, and without the guarantee "of parent or guardian." The result is "a mixed noisy throng," "no regard "to classification," and the consequent necessity of "individual instruction, "claiming the unremitted attention of the teacher," and an estrangement of

'pursuing a specific course with reference to future business employments" (*New York 23d Report*, 1864, p. 15).

The Cincinnati Committee, in advocating their scheme of a central night school, do so partly on the ground that it would help to equalize the benefits of the High School, which they confess, as things are, are too exclusively in possession of the wealthier class of citizens. "Our day schools," they say, "being founded upon a system the least objectionable, and the course of instruction "being so full as to furnish to all who complete it a high degree of knowledge, we might pause "and say that now every youth of our city has the opportunity of being educated, which would "indeed be true, if their circumstances in life would allow them to remain long enough to "complete the course. But such is not the case. To large numbers our excellent High Schools "are of no value. While the favoured few can receive all their rich advantages, the majority "must begin a life of labour; they must enter our workshops and mercantile establishments "at an age so early that they can only obtain the merest rudimentary knowledge. . . . These "young artizans and tradesmen, then, have the highest claim upon this Board for the means "of education at such times as their avocations will allow them to enter our schools."

* This is the plan at Lawrence, Massachusetts. "The enterprise is under the guidance of "our city missionary. The city government have finished off a large room in the basement of "the city hall, and have appropriated 100 dols. for incidental expenses: the tuition is rendered "wholly as a gratuity on the part of the teachers. It has opened, at its present session, with "350 pupils and 25 teachers. (*Massachusetts, 28th Report*, p. 32).

† *Ibid.*, p. 4.

‡ Averages, in such a case, would be no guide: but I extract some specimen cases from the New York returns, which are very complete.

New York Table.

Character of School.	Average belonging.	Number of Teachers.	No. of Scholars to a Teacher.	Salary of Teachers.	Cost per Scholar.	Salary of Janitors.	Cost per Scholar.	Supplies, Books, &c.	Cost per Scholar.	Incidental Expenses.	Cost per Scholar.
				dol.	dol.	dol.	dol.	dol.	dol.	dol.	dol.
Male -	270	8	4	1,208	4.47	45	0.17	227	0.84	—	—
Female -	182	7	6	975	5.36	45	24	208	1.14	319	0.71
Male -	154	7	22	1,107	7.19	90	58	199	1.29	—	—
Female -	75	8	29	1,087	14.50	45	17	259	89	—	—
Colored -	62	5	18	609	9.83	60	97	63	1.03	395	1.15
Male -	88	5	1	972	11.05	45	51	199	2.26	—	—
Female -	26	3		525	20.19	45	1.73	62	2.41	—	—
Colored -	60	4	15	631	10.62	50	83	116	1.94	—	—
Male -	60	6	10	908	15.14	90	1.50	68	1.14	—	—
Male -	306	8	38	1,241	4.05	45	14	406	1.33	—	—
Male -	345	11	31	1,602	4.64	90	26	270	79	—	—

scholars of maturer years, who "cannot always consent to attend a school "composed mainly of youths." In fact, Mr. Jones doubts whether, as at present constituted, "These schools, which cost so much, answer the purposes "for which they were established."*

Both male and female teachers are employed, the latter even in schools for boys. In fact, there is a complaint in New York that the "*majority*" of teachers in the male departments are "young and inexperienced females, who "are too often chosen to perform duties for which they are not fitted."†

Sometimes, as at New York, the schools are in separate departments, male and female, with distinct staffs of teachers. Sometimes, as at New Bedford, Mass., "the sexes meet on alternate evenings;"‡ sometimes, as at Fall River, the school appears to be mixed.§ Not long ago, I was informed by the President of the Board of Controllers, there were flourishing night schools in Philadelphia, instructing the strange proportion of 20,000 females to 5,000 males; but the former, at least, had been discontinued, as it was not thought prudent to draw, even for such a purpose, young girls from their homes after dark. Sex of scholars.

The period during which the schools are open varies from 12 weeks to 18 or 20. At Chicago the number of sessions in the winter of 1862–3 was only 32; at St Louis, 64. The per-centage of average attendance upon the number enrolled appears to be considerably lower than in the day schools, and hardly to reach 50 per cent. In New York, out of an enrolment of 20,386, the average attendance is reported to have been only 9,514; and only a small proportion of those who commence the season see it out to the end. "Fourteen hun-"dred," says the Cincinnati report, "entered our district night schools during "last winter, but only 300 continued to the close." "Of the number regis-"tered" in New York, "6,336," about 30 per cent., "attended less than one "month, leaving as soon as the curiosity which led them to enter had been "gratified." Of 1,021 enrolled at St. Louis, 372 attended less than 20 nights, and 170 less than 10 nights; the average nightly attendance being 431. In Chicago, with 483 enrolled, the average attendance was 220. Length of session, attendance, &c.

In New York the Principal and Vice-Principal of an evening school must possess the same qualifications as are required for the same positions in grammar schools; and Assistant Teachers must have licences from the City Superintendent equal to grade B; but it appears from Mr. Jones's remarks, already quoted, that this requirement is not sufficient to exclude incompetence. Salaries are fixed for the term of 18 weeks. For male teachers—Principal, $225; Vice-Principal, $180; Assistants, $112 to $130. For Female Teachers —Principal, $180; Vice-Principal, $135; Assistants, $112. In all these arrangements New York maintains its wonted character for liberality and completeness. Teachers' qualifications and salaries.

APPENDIX G.

On Libraries.

The American appetite for reading has been noticed in the text of the Report. I will briefly mention here the provision that has been made for satisfying it in the way of free public libraries: first exhibiting the law, and then illustrating from evidence before me the results of its operation.

In 1851 the legislature of Massachusetts authorized the establishment of free libraries at the public expense. An Act was passed enabling "each township "and city to establish and maintain a public library therein, with or without "branches, for the use of the inhabitants thereof; and to provide suitable "rooms therefor, under such regulations for its government as may from time "to time be prescribed by the inhabitants of the township or the city council." The sum appropriated for the foundation of the library and for suitable build- Massachusetts Law.

* *New York*, 23*rd Report*, p. 63–67.
† *Ibid.*, p. 67.
‡ *Massachusetts*, 28*th Report*, p. 105.
§ *Ibid.*, p. 191. "The average attendance is reported to have been 79, about two-thirds of "whom were males."

ings was not to exceed "one dollar for each of the township's rateable polls;" nor for its annual maintenance and increase to exceed half that amount. Bequests and donations might be received, held, and managed by the township for library purposes.

Its results.

When this Act was passed, it is stated that there only existed seven free public libraries in the State; but such was the stimulus created under it, that in 10 years returns were received from 45 public libraries, containing, in 1861, 201,706 volumes, and receiving annual additions of 22,000 volumes. By far the most important of these is the Free Public Library of Boston, owing its establishment to the munificence of Joshua Bates, Esq., which contains nearly 120,000 volumes, exclusive of pamphlets, and has upon its register the names of upwards of 35,000 persons who have made applications to take out books, and so "acquired a right to enjoy its privileges." Libraries, containing upwards of 12,000 volumes, exist also at Lowell, New Bedford, and Worcester. In his next Report, the Agent of the Board of Education promises full statistics for the entire State, both as to the number of libraries and the various modes of their support:* in his latest Report he merely states that the number is increasing, and that "their practical value cannot be over-estimated."†

As the State makes no grant for their support, and the law establishing them is not compulsory, libraries are likely to be found in Massachusetts only in townships where there is both a good deal of public spirit and some breadth of literary culture. There are no returns relating to their condition in the two last Reports, beyond the general commendation of their usefulness, by Mr. Northrop, noticed above; but in the Report for 1861 there is a considerable body of testimony in their favour, though it is admitted "everything depends "upon the character of the books;" that is, in effect, upon the judgment of the library committee: "if they are not qualified, trash will fill the shelves of the "library, and folly, if not something worse, the heads and hearts of those who "read it."‡ In several places "the method pursued of late of buying light "and trashy books to the exclusion of more solid reading;" and "too wide a "range of light and injudicious reading among the younger subscribers" are observed and regretted.

Ohio Law.

By the Ohio school-law of 1853, a tax of one-tenth of a mill on the dollar was annually collected for the purpose of furnishing school libraries and apparatus to all the common schools of the State. The tax, when collected, was paid to the State treasurer, and was applied to its object, upon the warrant of the State auditor, by the State Commissioner of Schools. The books and apparatus were to be received by the county Auditor, and by him distributed to the clerks of the township boards of education in the county. The local school boards were to appoint librarians, and to determine the places where the libraries should be deposited, selecting such central situations as would best accommodate the schools and families of each district. Every family in each district was to be entitled to the use of one volume at a time, and the library was to be open, under the inspection of the librarian, at stated periods throughout the year.

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* Here is a sample of how a library is supported in Massachusetts. "It was established in "1855 by a grant from the township (Framingham) of 1 dol. on each poll, amounting in the "aggregate to 1,000 dols. The town has since made an annual grant of from 200 dols. to 225 "dols. for its support and increase. A convenient room in the town hall has been furnished by "the township, and the library is under the direction of a committee, a librarian, and assistant. "At its foundation and at different periods since, liberal donations of books were made, and one "of our citizens has made a gift of 500 dols. in money." (*24th Report*, p. 155). It is open to "the whole town; and it contained in 1861, 3,150 volumes.

In another township (Barre) the nucleus of the library is stated to have been "the bequest of "an old man, who, almost wholly illiterate, yet desired that the savings of a laborious lifetime "should contribute somewhat to show his estimation of the blessings of knowledge." (*Ibid.*, p. 159).

At Cambridge, a bequest is mentioned of 15,000 dols., and the city council appropriate annually 300 dols., and those who use it are required to pay 1 dol. per annum for the privilege. (*Ibid.*)

† *Twenty-eighth Report*, p. 45.

‡ *Twenty-fourth Report*, p. 161. It seems that books of a "sectarian" character are admitted to the library, though excluded from the school. "An examination of the theological depart- "ment—to which additions have been rather sparingly made—will show that the trustees have "been governed by a truly Catholic spirit. Here the disciples of Fox will find the 'apology' for "their faith; churchmen will find advocates for the apostolic succession; the descendants of "the Puritans, whether of the old or new and so-called 'liberal' school, will find their Stuarts "and Channings peacefully reclining side by side, while the Methodists, Baptists, Universalists, "and all, of every name, will find some exponent of their peculiar views." This liberality prevails at New Bedford. (*Ibid.*, p. 162).

In purchasing libraries for common schools, no books of a sectarian or denominational character were to be procured.

In 1860, the power to assess a tax for the purpose of furnishing and increasing school libraries and apparatus was withdrawn, and I do not know how libraries in Ohio are supported now, unless it be, as in Massachusetts, by voluntary assessment. By the school-law of 1864 township boards of education are required to collect all the school library books in the township, and consolidate them into one central library—a proof that the institution is still maintained.

Present condition.

The local reports do not give a very favourable impression of the value or condition of these libraries. In some townships interest was taken in the books when new, but they have "been read over and over again, and have ceased to "be interesting." In others, "the package received from the county auditor "has never even been opened," In others, "having been distributed, but "never collected again," the books are now "scattered to the four winds." In others, they are reported to be "in good condition, because never or rarely "used." Very few townships have appointed a librarian. The general state of feeling is, that "the library system is appreciated in the towns and villages," but that in rural districts people are nearly, if not quite, indifferent to it. It is mentioned as remarkable that three school districts had "added to their "libraries from other sources than the State fund." It is hoped, however, that when the books are collected and consolidated, and the library in consequence offers a larger choice to readers, greater interest will be taken in this "means "of diffusing knowledge." At present the library must be considered as nearly "a dead institution."*

Law of New York.

If it is nearly dead in Ohio, it may be reported as quite dead, or at any rate *in extremis* in New York. The law in New York is a sort of combination of the laws of Massachusetts and Ohio. There is a permissive power of local taxation, and there is a distributive appropriation of a State or central fund.

The taxable inhabitants of each school district have power, in lawful meeting, to lay a tax on the district, not exceeding $10 in any one year, for the purchase of books, and such further sum as they may deem necessary for the purchase of a book-case.

By an Act of 1838 the sum of $55,000 is annually set apart out of the income of the United States Deposit Fund, and distributed by the Chief Superintendent among the cities and rural districts, according to their population.† If the library money apportioned to a district in any year is less than $3, the trustees may apply it in payment of teachers' wages.

Whenever the number of volumes in the library of any district, containing more than 50 children between the ages of 5 and 16, shall exceed 125, or of any district, containing less than 50 children between the said ages, shall exceed 100 volumes, a majority of the voters may resolve to appropriate the whole of the library money belonging to the district for the current year to the purchase of maps, globes, black-boards, and other scientific apparatus for the use of their school; or, if the school is sufficiently supplied with these, the money, with the approval of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, may be applied to the payment of qualified teachers' wages.‡

The Superintendent of Public Instruction may require the trustees from time to time to make to him, or to the school commissioner of the district, a detailed

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* *See Eleventh Report*, pp. 132, 129, 126, 125, 122, 135, 130, 144, 133, etc.

† *Eleventh Report*, 1865, p. 9. The sums appropriated to cities and towns for the support of libraries in 1854 were 20,142 dols., and 34,857 dols. respectively. The sums spent on libraries were respectively 5,409 dols. and 21,481 dols. On apparatus there was expended in the same year, by cities 128,447 dols., by rural districts 8,165 dols. The entire sum expended on the two objects was 164,204 dols., of which 55,000 dols. was from the State grant, and 109,504 dols. was raised by local taxation. (*Ibid.*) It is evident that a large proportion both of urban and rural districts use their privilege of spending their library money on other objects.

Malversation of trustees.

‡ The Superintendent states that, before the stricter enactments of the law of 1864, though the trustees were required to spend their library money before a specified time, "in numerous "instances they not only neglected to do so, but kept in their possession, year after year, the "aggregate amount of several years' apportionment, while they reported each year that the "money received for that year had been duly expended." He admits that it was probably finally expended in the interest of the districts, "with or without the authority of the law;" but not unnaturally remarks on the "impropriety of thus distributing a small sum of money "annually among more than 20,000 officers, without any efficient means of enforcing its timely "and judicious expenditure." (*Ibid.*, p. 10). It was, probably, the smallness of the appropriation, sometimes not exceeding 3 dols. to a district, which led to the practice.

report of the condition of the library, and of any circumstances connected with it concerning which information may be required.

Condition of the libraries.

Such are the provisions of the school-law on the subject of libraries in the State of New York: that they fail of their intended effect, the reports of the school commissioners from all parts of the State sufficiently prove. Of the 70 commissioners' reports in the Report for 1865, two give a favourable account, 10 give a mixed account, 48 give a most unfavourable picture of the condition of the district libraries, 10 pass over the subject without notice. It appears, to speak generally, that newspapers, magazines, and "yellow-covered novels," which it is said are to be found in every house, have superseded the use of the library; a fact which, considering that the law contemplates 100 or 125 volumes as a sufficient stock upon its shelves, is not surprising. One of the "mixed" accounts states that out of 128 districts only 30 used the library quota for the purchase of books.

The unfavourable picture is painted in strong colours. The school library is dead.* It has "become almost a nuisance."† It is almost entirely neglected, and is rapidly passing into the category of "things that were,"‡ Its usefulness is gone: there has been a time when it was appreciated, but that time is now past.§ It has become a failure; nearly all the districts use the money for the payment of teachers' wages. The $55,000 annually distributed might be better spent on the support of three or four more Normal schools.‖ Many of the books are scarcely worth perusal: newspapers have taken the place of books, and the young are living in the exciting scenes of the present without particularly caring for the past.¶ Another commissioner "has no patience to speak "of the libraries:" he was going to suggest that the money should be employed to eke out the slender salaries of the commissioners, but, hearing that the supervisors of the district had just agreed to raise his own salary $200, he forbears the suggestion.** No reliance can be placed on trustees' reports of their condition: they are mere guess-work; and one resorted to dry measure in estimating the stock of books by reporting "about a bushel."†† Their usefulness has been greatly injured by injudicious selections of books. In one library were seen copies of the revised statutes of the State of New York. "It is needless "to add," drily remarks the commissioner, "that the trustee for many years "had been a justice of the peace."‡‡ "Libraries," adds another gentleman, "have done good in their day; but they are among the things that were, and "apparently so far past recovery that no power on earth can restore them to "their former life and prosperity. The people are unwilling to appropriate one "dollar of the library money for books if they can avoid it."§§

Cause of neglect.

The philosophy of this neglect of libraries is thus given: "I would not have "it inferred that 'old Washington,'" says a commissioner, jealous for the good name of his county, "is behind the age in enterprise and intelligence because "of the little interest manifested in school libraries. They are literally a reading "people, alive to every new improvement, and are not content to devote their "leisure hours to reading the old, nasty, and worn books found in school-"libraries in these stirring times, when the incrustations of old opinions and "customs are broken up. In many families may be found well-selected "private libraries, periodicals, and the daily and weekly newspapers; these "have opened a vast field for general reading, and superseded in a great "measure the necessity of libraries."‖‖

Public libraries of Detroit and Boston.

I visited a conveniently arranged and accessible public library, whose shelves had just been filled with the best standard works in English literature, neither

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* *Eleventh Report*, p. 108.
† *Ibid.* p. 158.
‡ *Ibid.* p. 176.
§ *Ibid.* p. 190.
‖ *Ibid.* p. 206.
¶ *Ibid.* p. 225.
** *Ibid.* p. 252.
†† *Ibid.* p. 255; also p. 138.
‡‡ *Ibid.* p. 260.
§§ *Ibid.* p. 264. Another Commissioner states that the library money in many instances is applied to the payment of teachers' wages, "in plain violation of the law" (p. 287. The result of this practice, it is apprehended, will be that "a majority of districts in a short time will be "without an organized library" (p. 291).
‖‖ *Ibid.* p. 331.

so dry as to be unattractive, nor so light as to be unprofitable, at Detroit, in Michigan, which appeared to me an excellent model for imitation; but perhaps the most admirably organized, most liberally supported, and most largely used institution of the kind in the country is the Free Public Library at Boston, already briefly noticed.

The idea of it is due to a noble offer made by Joshua Bates, Esq., a well-known member of Messrs. Baring's house in this country, but an American by birth, to the mayor of Boston in 1852, to endow a public library with $50,000—a sum which was subsequently increased by a second donation of a similar amount—on condition that the city "would provide the building and take care "of the expenses." The offer was gratefully accepted; the corner-stone of the building was laid in 1855, and in 1858 the library was opened for public use.* The building consists of two halls, an upper and a lower, and a reading room, furnished with accommodation for 150 readers, which was one of the conditions of Mr. Bates' donation. The reading room contains "reviews and journals, "the best in all languages." In the upper hall are placed the works of a "more substantial character," numbering about 95,000 volumes, which "are "lent out to the public freely, with only such necessary safeguards as expe-"rience and good judgment have suggested." The lower hall is occupied by about 25,000 volumes "of a new and popular kind, but comprising still the "best standard works for general use," every "facility being provided for their "widest circulation."

To avail themselves of the advantages thus placed within their reach, residents in Boston† have only to make an application for a card of permission to take out books, and to sign a promise to obey the rules of the library. In the year 1864 4,758 such applications were received and answered, and the number of persons now entitled to enjoy the privileges of the library is 35,239.

Statistics of the Boston Library.

The trustees' reports contain some interesting statistics of the extent and manner in which the library is used. It appears that in 1864 184,035 books were lent for home use, of which number 7,468 were lent from the upper hall. The average daily circulation of the year was 664 volumes. There were, on an average throughout the year, 302 visitors to the reading room, 202 to the upper hall, making, with those who came to borrow books for home use, 1,128 daily frequenters of the library. From the lower hall 432 books are reported as missing, from the upper hall 15; most of the latter, however, are believed to be simply misplaced. The books borrowed from the upper hall are said, "almost without exception to have been used with care;" but the Superintendent regrets "that the appearance of the books in the lower hall," which get into the hands of a more miscellaneous class of readers, "does not show "the improvement he had hoped for in the carefulness of their treatment by "borrowers," and he apprehends that it will be necessary to make more stringent regulations to prevent their mutilation and defacement.

The library has a permanent endowment fund of about $95,000, which produces an income of $5,700 a year. The total cost of the year 1864 was $32,789, of which $13,113 was for the purchase of books; the excess above the endowment fund being made up by a city appropriation.

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* See *Trustees' Twelfth Report*, 1864, p. 15–17.

† Boston people—and, indeed, Americans generally—seem to be very tenacious about confining the benefits of their institutions to residents. The Trustees' Report of 1862 contains a petition from certain individuals, assessed to about 1,600,000 dols. worth of real property in the city, but residing outside its limits, praying that "the privileges of resident citizens might be extended to "non-resident tax-payers." The prayer of the petitioners was not granted. "The true policy," say the Committee to whom the petition was referred, "is to maintain institutions of education "for the advantage of our own citizens. . . . To supply these advantages to non-residents "simply because they have a greater or less property interest in the city, would be unjustly to "discriminate against our own citizens, not only as to the convenient and serviceable use of "those advantages, but by removing some of the strongest inducements for the residence in the "city of men of means and taste." It was the unanimous opinion of the Committee that beyond "the opportunity to consult and read books in the Library Building," which any respectable person may at any time obtain, "non-residents should not be privileged." See the correspondence in the *Trustees' Tenth Report*, pp. 46–50. In a similar spirit the Board of Controllers at Philadelphia complain that residents in the State of New Jersey are frequently found to be taking advantage of the proximity of their schools. The objection, which at first sight, looks illiberal, arises, no doubt, from the evasions that are so often practised in order to escape from taxation, persons being taxed on their personal property in the place where they reside. Numbers of people reside in the suburbs of Boston to avoid the heavy burden of the city taxation. It would not be wise to encourage the practice by extending to them privileges paid for out of the pockets of residents.

The following table is interesting, as showing the relative centesimal use of different classes of books in the upper hall:—

	1862.	1863.	1864.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
English History and Literature	18	17½	16
Useful Arts and Fine Arts	8	9	12
Theology and Ethics	12	11	11
American History and Literature	12½	6	8½
French	6½	5	7½
Periodicals	—	7	6
Mathematical and Physical Sciences	5½	5½	5½
Medicine	7	7	5
General History	—	4½	4¼
Natural History	—	4	4
Greek and Latin Classics	2½	3	3½
Oriental History and Literature	4	3½	3½
Bibliography	—	2½	3
Italian History and Literature	2⅓	4	2⅓
German	3½	2½	2
Law	3	1½	2
Transactions of Learned Societies	—	3	1½
Miscellaneous	—	2	0¾

APPENDIX H.

Commercial Colleges.

A singular and characteristically American institution is the (so-called) "International Chain of Commercial Colleges," established by Messrs. Bryant and Stratton in upwards of 30 of the leading commercial cities of the United States and Canada,* and which appears to add every year four or five to the number of its links. The idea of the system is to enable young men and women who have completed their general education in the common schools, to make themselves acquainted with the practical details of business life in its great departments of book-keeping, banking, telegraphy, phonography, and general mercantile and commercial transactions.

I visited the college established at Hartford, and was much interested and pleased with its *modus operandi*. In a great commercial country such facilities for acquiring practical acquaintance with business appeared to me to be very valuable. A "Scholarship," as it is called — in other words, a payment of $50 in advance—entitles a student to instruction which will qualify him to enter as clerk in any house of business, a warehouse, or a bank, in any college throughout the chain for an unlimited period. Telegraphy and short-hand are extras. Everything is done on the premises. The young aspiring merchant has his correspondents in other colleges of the chain, with whom he carries on the mimicry of real trade; he has but to step from one end of the apartment to the other to transact imaginary business with his banker. The whole mystery of letters of credit and bills of exchange is revealed to him. Stock is regularly taken. Affairs are wound up in bankruptcy; commercial law is expounded; book-keeping in every form of entry is practised; no single transaction of commerce is unrepresented, as far at least as its forms are concerned.

* The cities in which Colleges are already "located" are New York, Hartford, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, Brooklyn, Albany, Troy, Burlington, Portland, Providence, Montreal, Toronto, Ogdensburg, Utica, Rochester, Buffalo, Detroit, Chicago, Cincinnati, Milwaukee, Indianapolis, Cleveland, St. Louis, Ponghkeepsie, Toledo, Bridgeport, Newark, Covington, Davenport.

I met Mr. Stratton at Chicago—a man full of enterprise and energy—a typical American "You shall hear of us, sir, before long," said he, "in England."

There is no particular period fixed for completing the course, the length of which would depend upon the diligence, abilities, and previous education of the pupil. The manager at Hartford told me that three months is the average time; but he remembered one case in which he had pushed a young man through in 11 days. When once the fifty dollars has been paid down, a student may stay three years, if he pleases; but, of course, the object of every one is to get "through" as quickly as possible. Those who complete the prescribed course, and are considered competent to take situations, receive a diploma, setting forth their qualifications, which I was informed is sufficiently valuable to be a tolerably sure passport to a good situation.

The system meets an acknowledged want, if it is used properly. The danger is, that it should become a substitute for, instead of a supplement to, general education. If some half-educated Massachusetts or Illinois farmer should think it the best policy for his son, to remove him from the Common School before he has half finished its course, and put him for three or four months to one of these Commercial Colleges, with a view to getting him out earlier into life, and such policy should become general, a very heavy blow will have been struck at the cause of education generally. But such is not the design of the "International Colleges," and it would not be fair to lay at their doors an abuse which, if they cannot prevent, they do not encourage.

I should suppose that in the 30 colleges of this chain there must be at least 3,000 pupils receiving a commercial education. There is a gigantic establishment of a similar kind, though belonging to a different proprietor, and not based (I was told) on such sound principles, at Poughkeepsie, New York, within the walls of which 2,000 pupils are sometimes gathered at once.

The character, however, of the institution can best be collected from the programme printed below, which, allowing a little for the natural tendencies of an advertisement, does not much overstate what I saw going on in Hartford.

"PROSPECTUS.

"The purpose in establishing these institutions has been to furnish young men with facilities for a business education which will enable them to enter at once upon fields of usefulness and honour.

"The tedious years of apprenticeship, which, under the old system, were considered the only stepping stone to remunerative position, are epitomized into a few months of pleasant study, where the mind is trained not only to appreciate the minor details of business, but the grander principles which underlie the economy of life, and without which no business education can be considered complete.

"The advantages possessed by such institutions over counting-house experience in laying the deep foundations of a complete and symmetrical education applicable to all the varied exigencies of a business life, are many and indisputable.

"First, the course of instruction is specially prepared to bring into proper relief these essential facts which in the usual process of experience do not occur in such order or frequency as to be susceptible of being arranged into a system, or of establishing a logical sequence in the mind. Next, the various departments of business, with all the accessories, are so completely illustrated and enforced as to convey special and permanent instruction as to details in the matter of buying, selling, shipping, receiving, and in all the processes of commerce and finance applicable to both inland and foreign trade.

"The course of instruction in this college has direct reference to the requirements of business. The main branches pursued are:—

"Book-keeping, in all its departments and applications.

"Commercial law, including both the law merchant and such statutory regulations as pertain to questions of property and personal rights.

"Commercial arithmetic, embracing all subjects applied in business transactions, the great majority of which are either entirely omitted or very lightly and unsatisfactorily treated in the prevailing text-books of the day.

"Business penmanship, upon the Spencerian basis, under the instruction of one of the best teachers of this system in the country.

"Business correspondence, including the principles of English composition,

and such thorough practice in connexion with the daily exercises as must secure the most satisfactory results.

" Incidental instruction is also given in Political Economy, the Science of Government, the Customs of Business, &c.

" The modern languages and higher mathematics are taught when desired.

" Each student is admitted upon his own recognizance as a gentleman; is treated as such, and is expected to consider himself, in all respects, responsible for his own acts. Having purchased a scholarship, which secures to him the necessary instruction to make him a thorough accountant, he is permitted to elect his time and place of attendance within the prescribed jurisdiction of the colleges; but it is expected of all students that they will observe all possible diligence and regularity in their attendance. The general discipline, while it does not descend to those minute and specific requirements which seem necessary in the conduct of schools more primary in their character, is, nevertheless, sufficiently strict and exacting to place the responsibility of the student's progress upon himself. A record of attendance is kept in connexion with the recitations, and promptness, as far as may be, is required. The progress of each student in his course is regulated by such frequent and thorough examinations as shall be competent to satisfy the teachers in charge, and no student is permitted to pass from one division of his course to another without giving evidence of suitable proficiency.

" Diplomas will bear the signatures of heads of departments, and no student will be entitled to such diploma who fails in any of the required studies.

" The Initiatory Course comprises a complete knowledge of the theory of accounts, and the collateral branches, embracing penmanship, commercial law, commercial calculations and correspondence.

" This part of the collegiate course is most carefully and critically watched, no student being permitted to pass from one step to another without a thorough and satisfactory examination. His knowledge of book-keeping, before passing to the counting-house or graduating course, must cover the entire field of the science, embracing the departments of retail and wholesale merchandizing, commission and forwarding agencies—both simple and compound—joint stock companies of all kinds, such as banking, manufacturing, railroading, insurance, mining, &c. &c. requiring to open, conduct and close over 20 sets of books, with every variety of partnership contract, and division of gains and losses. The sets are short, embracing a large variety of entry, and bringing into requisition all the forms of business paper, such as notes, drafts, checks, certificates of deposit, bils of exchange, statement, &c.

" After passing through the initiatory course, and giving satisfactory evidence of a thorough knowledge of the principles and practice of business, the student is advanced to the counting-room, where his proficiency is put to the most severe practical test. The " counting-room " is a miniature business world, in which are represented all departments of economy, and affording to the student a novel and interesting glimpse of the outer world for which he is preparing. Here he sees, in actual and harmonious operation, the different branches of trade and commerce which unite countries, states, communities, and individuals in the closest bonds of mutual interest, and make up the grand system of economy which men call business.

" But he is no indifferent or idle spectator. Having pursued his studies thus far with special reference to the exigencies of a business life, he is now to engage in those pursuits which will test the value of his instruction. He is established in business as a merchant, is furnished with a cash capital which he invests in merchandise, purchasing the same from an importer or jobber, and defraying the necessary expenses of getting it in store. He learns the peculiarities of the particular branch in which he is engaged, the styles and denominations of weight and measurement, and the customs which prevail in first-class houses. He keeps a regular bank account—an institution of this kind being always in operation and serving as the great central financial agent of the busy community of dealers—making regular daily deposits and drawing checks as occasion may require. In the course of business he receives other people's notes and issues his own, all of which pass regularly through the bank either for discount or collection, requiring constant vigilance upon his part, and a thorough understanding of business customs in this direction. In the constant repetition

of buying and selling he learns to watch carefully all the phases of the market, and to study the theory of gains from the practical lessons occurring under his immediate observation and direction. He is also thoroughly drilled in original entries of all kinds, and learns to rely upon himself. Having had sufficient practice in this direction he passes to the other departments, and becomes in turn a proprietor or employé in a commission house, forwarding house, insurance office, post office, telegraph office, railroad office, steamboat office, manufactory, &c. In all these various positions he is furnished with the most approved forms in use, and, having to adopt the actual practice, he acquires a facility in their use which could be obtained in no other way. From these positions he passes at length into the college bank, where he becomes a financier, and learns to apply the theoretical lessons of his course in this direction. The bank is fitted up with all the modern conveniences, and furnished with a complete set of books and blank forms, together with neatly engraved bank-notes and coin sufficient for the united business of all the various "houses" in operation. The business at the bank is at once the most natural and effective, being the result almost entirely of the other departments, and consisting of such actual transactions as require all the forms and manipulations common to banks of circulation and deposit. The student acts in turn as teller, bookkeeper, cashier, and in fact becomes familiar with all the entries and processes practised in banks. The bank is kept perpetually in operation, the books being closed only at stated periods for the purpose of declaring dividends. Its importance in perfecting the operations in the business department is not less than that of other similar institutions in the great business world; and the finishing touches which its multifarious duties give to the student are well calculated to impart a degree of facility and confidence in actual business operations such as no mere theoretical training could accomplish.

"The time necessary to accomplish the complete course is from three to five months, but progress is marked not by the lapse of time, but by proficiency in the prescribed studies.

"It will be readily apparent that a connected chain of institutions, located in the leading commercial cities, affords facilities for carrying on an extensive inland and foreign trade, such as cannot be enjoyed by a mere local school.

"Through these agencies shipments are made and consignments received, with all attending correspondence, including accounts sales, accounts current, statements, etc. This arrangement also gives ample scope for bank correspondence pertaining to discounts and collections due abroad, differing in no respect from that connected with first-class business and banking-houses. In short, the plan of instruction adopted and pursued in these colleges is the result of 12 years' careful study and experience, with such rare opportunities for making it effectual as have been enjoyed by no other institution in this country.

"Telegraphic instruments, with all the accessories of a main and local battery, have been introduced, and any student who wishes to qualify himself as an operator can receive all the necessary instruction and practice to make him proficient.

"Arrangements are being effected for a regular Board of Trade after the manner of the Produce Exchange in our principal cities, which will hold regular sessions in connexion with the practical course.

"A fair knowledge of the ordinary English branches constitutes a sufficient preparation for entering upon a commercial course.

"The services of a competent and faithful teacher have been secured for the ladies' department. It is for the interest of ladies as well as gentlemen to qualify themselves for business and thus increase greatly the value of their services. The absence of so many young men in the service of the country greatly increases the demand for ladies as clerks, book-keepers, &c.

"Persons wishing to qualify themselves for teaching penmanship can receive such instruction at this college as will render them efficient and successful. They will not only be taught to write well themselves in various styles, but will be made to understand the philosophy of imparting instruction to others. The expenses of obtaining an education have often been paid by teaching an hour daily in some seminary or college.

Terms, Regulations, &c.

Tuition.—Payable in advance, viz:—

Scholarship for full course in book-keeping, commercial law, commercial calculations, writing, lectures, and practical exercises, good throughout the chain for an unlimited period	$50
Same course for ladies	45
Telegraphing	50
To students holding scholarships	25

Special Instruction to Persons not holding Scholarship.

Separate instruction in commercial law, three months	$10
Separate instruction in commercial arithmetic, three months	12
Separate instruction in penmanship, three months, one lesson a day	10
" " " two lessons a day	15
Shorthand	10

Blank books for full course will cost $10.

Text-books will cost as follows:—Book-keeping, $3.50; commercial law, $3.50; commercial arithmetic, $2.

Board can be obtained at from $4 to $5 per week. On application to the college, by letter or otherwise, special pains will be taken to secure excellent accommodation at these rates,

Time of commencement.—As there are no term divisions students can enter at any time, and pursue their course as rapidly as their ability will admit.

Time required.—The time necessary to complete the course is from three to five months, varying according to the ability of the student.

Sessions.—The regular hours for instruction and business are from 9 to 12 a.m., from 2 to 5 p.m. every week day in the year except Saturdays, and from 7 to 9 in the evening during six months in the year, viz., from the 1st of October to the 1st of May. Students entering the evening classes can complete the entire course during the sessions of any one year.

Diplomas.—Those students, *and those alone*, who fulfil the prescribed course of study and pass the requisite examination are entitled to the honours of graduation. Diplomas are awarded to all such.

APPENDIX I.

Westfield and Salem Normal Schools.

Of the four State Normal Schools of Massachusetts I visited those situated at Westfield and Salem*, spending a whole morning in the one, and an afternoon in the other. It may contribute to the completeness of this Report, if I take this opportunity of appending a brief description of each of those institutions. To begin with Salem.

Salem Normal School.

The city of Salem, beautifully situated on the eastern sea-board, is said to be one of the wealthiest townships in Massachusetts. The Normal School was established there a dozen years ago by the State; the city of Salem and the Eastern Railroad Company contributing also in liberal proportions to the enterprise. It is maintained chiefly by State funds, though deriving some

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* The Normal Schools of Massachusetts have each their *spécialité*. Bridgewater is famous for its mathematics; Framingham for its reading; Salem for its belles-lettres; Westfield for its combination of oral and linear description—"talking and chalking," as Mr. Northrop calls it—suggested by Professor Agassiz and which I saw admirably exemplified by Miss Malvina Mitchell. Bridgewater and Westfield are mixed schools, with a large preponderance, however, of the softer sex; Framingham and Salem are for females only.

The Hon. E. E. White, School Commissioner of the State of Ohio, who took a tour of inspection in the summer of 1865 among the Eastern Normal Schools, told me that he considered the Westfield establishment the best he had seen. He did not, however, visit Salem, which, to my judgment, is at least equal to her sister.

The Normal School at Albany, New York, was not in session either at my first visit to that city, in the beginning of July, nor at my second in the beginning of September, so that I had no opportunity of seeing it in operation. Mr. White was not favourably impressed with its condition.

aid from private benefactions; and its average annual expenditure is about $4,500. It was opened for the reception of students in September 1854; and up to the date of the last Report (1864–5) it had done more or less for the education of 841 pupils, of whom 361 had received diplomas, in testimony of their completion of the prescribed course of study. From 110 to 120 pupils, divided into four classes, is the average number in attendance. The school is under a male Principal, supported by eight female assistant teachers. There is a special teacher of music, and occasional lectures are given in elocution, mental philosophy, chemistry, physiology, geology, &c., by professors of those subjects imported from a distance. The Principal's salary is $1,500; the united salaries of his assistants in 1864-5 was $2,056, or an average of about $250 apiece. Teaching staff.

The period of the course of training originally was only one year. It was increased to a year and a half. It now stands at two years. There is an advanced course, voluntary, of another year and a half (in which certain studies previously optional, become compulsory), to enable students to qualify themselves for High Schools of the first grade. The size of this class, however, is always small. In the first term of 1864 it consisted of three; in the second term of only five pupils. Period of the course.

Each school year is divided into two terms of 20 weeks each, commencing respectively on the last Wednesday in February, and the first Wednesday in September, with a week's recess near the middle of the term. Each term closes with exercises of examination and graduation.

Students must pass an examination at entrance; the age of admission being at least 16; and they are also examined at the beginning of each term in the studies of the previous term. If not up to the required mark, they are either (1) compelled to make up the lost ground by extra study, or (2) are remanded to the class from which they ought to have risen, or (3), if hopelessly backward, are withdrawn. The three first terms of a pupil's course are occupied chiefly in acquiring knowledge; the last term is spent on "methods" and school management, the State school laws, and mental philosophy. Examinations.

The studies of the school are divided into two great classes: (1) the more strictly professional, which are prescribed for all the members of the school; (2) those more general in their character, which are pursued as the students may need or desire, as a preparation for teaching in the several grades of public schools. The "general" studies are further subdivided into three classes; (1) The "branches of learning" prescribed by law for all public schools; (2) those prescribed for all High Schools; (3) those prescribed for High Schools of the first grade.* Studies.

Pupils who successfully complete the "professional" studies of the school, and who approve themselves, upon examination, fully competent to instruct in the "general" studies of the first class, receive the first or lowest diploma of the school. Those who show themselves well acquainted with the general studies of the second class and with the French language, are entitled to the second diploma; while for the remaining studies a special certificate is added. The prescribed course for the first diploma covers two years; but pupils may enter at an advanced standing, and so shorten their period of attendance, whenever their attainments justify such an arrangement. Diplomas.

There is neither model nor practising school attached to the institution. "Experimental schools," as they are called in the States, were attached to Bridgewater, Westfield, and Framingham, but owing to difficulties of management between the School Committee of the towns and the authorities of the Normal Schools, they have been discontinued. They are considered to be less necessary adjuncts, as many, if not most, of the students have already been No experimental school.

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* General Studies. *Class I.*—"Orthography, Reading, Writing, English Grammar, Geography, Arithmetic, the History of the United States, and Good Behaviour." To which must be added Algebra, Vocal Music, Drawing, Physiology, Hygiene and Agriculture, which the law requires to "be taught in all the public schools in which the School Committee deem it "expedient."

Class II.—"General History, Book-keeping, Surveying, Geometry, Natural Philosophy, "Chemistry, Botany, the Civil Polity of the Commonwealth and of the United States, and the "Latin Language."

Class III.—"The Greek and French Languages, Astronomy, Geology, Rhetoric, Logic, "Intellectual and Moral Science, and Political Economy." (See *General Statutes of Massachusetts*, ch. 38, s. 1, 2.)

engaged in teaching, and come here to qualify themselves for a higher grade of school.

Tuition fee. Tuition is free to all students who, wherever resident, will pledge themselves to teach for at least a year in the common schools of the State. Other pupils, who intend to teach in other States or in private schools, may be admitted on payment of a tuition fee of $15 per term. There is, however, a small charge of a dollar and a half per term for the use of books.

Residence. Students are neither boarded nor lodged in the school. They reside mostly with families in the city. The sum commonly paid for board (not including washing, or separate fire and lights) is at present, from the great advance of prices, $3.50 a week.

State assistance. In order to assist those "who would find even the moderate expense of the "school burdensome," the State makes an annual appropriation of a thousand dollars, which is distributed "among pupils from Massachusetts, who may "merit and need the aid, in sums varying according to the distance of their "residence from Salem, and their necessary expenses in attending the school, "but not exceeding in any case a dollar and a half per week." Aid is also rendered, in cases of special need, from the income of a fund of $5,000, for which the school is indebted to the munificence of a private benefactor. Altogether the amount of assistance offered to poverty is about $1,600 a year, which in 1864 was distributed to 46 pupils out of a total number of 115.

Social rank of students. The occupations of the parents of the students admitted in 1864 are thus stated—indicating the class of life from which teachers in the common schools are drawn. "Farmers, 23; manufacturers and mechanics, 18; merchants or traders, 12; carpenters, 7; fishermen, 3; clergymen, 2; designers, 2; teachers, 2; blacksmith, city officer, coach-painter, confectioner, inspector of customs, mariner, physician, railroad station agent, sea captain, stone-cutter, superintendent of car company, teacher of music, United States officer, warden of prison—of each occupation one."*

In some cases, students, to save the cost of board, come from and return daily to their homes in Lowell, Lawrence, or Gloucester, 20 or 25 miles away, by railway. As the school hours are from 9.30 to 12.30, and from 2 to 4.30, they have to leave home early, and return late. Home lessons occupy a further time of from two to three hours, so that the day's work altogether is so hard, that none but strong constitutions are equal to it.

School building. The school is held in a suitable and commodious building, containing a large assembling room and eight class rooms, some of them good-sized, others very small. Attached to the school are good cabinets of natural objects, of philosophical apparatus, &c., and a well-selected library of 7000 volumes. It is the custom of each graduating class to make some collective present to the institution—a stereoscope, a magic lantern, and so forth. Money is now being accumulated for the purchase of a telescope.

Constitution. The Constitution of the school is that it is under the control of a board of four Visitors, appointed by the State Board of Education, who annually inspect it and report upon its condition. The theory is that the teachers are appointed by the Visitors; but they practically rely upon the recommendation of the Principal. The Principal himself is appointed by the Board of Education as a whole. He acts generally as financial agent of the school. The State appropriation is paid quarterly by the treasurer either to him or to the Visitors.

It is stated by the Visitors in their last Report that enlarged appropriations for fuel, the care of the building, and most of the other incidental expenses of the school, are imperatively required. Reckoning tuition at $30 a year, and board at $3·50 a week, it would appear that the average cost of education at Salem is about $170, or 30*l.*, a year.

WESTFIELD. Westfield is a mixed school, which contained at the time of my visit in June 1865 about 100 students, 90 of whom were females, 10 males. It is an older institution than Salem, having been opened at Barre in 1839, and removed to Westfield in 1844.

The age of admission, the course of study, and most of the details of the institution are identical with those of Salem.† Tuition is free. A thousand

* *Massachusetts 28th Report*, p. 34.

† Unimportant variations are, that the age of admission for *males* is 17; and that the terms commence a month later; the Spring term on the fourth Wednesday in March, and the "Fall" term on the fourth Wednesday in September. There appears, also, to be only one class of Diploma at Westfield, and though there is provision made for an advanced class in the programme, I do not observe in the list of students that it has any existence in fact.

dollars is appropriated by the State to assist indigent students. Pupils board and lodge in the town.

I have already briefly noticed the Westfield speciality of combining oral with linear description in all lessons capable of that mode of handling. I heard a lesson on physiology given by Miss Mitchell to her class, in which I know not whether I was more pleased by the correctness and rapidity of her drawing or the fluency and precision of her verbal explanation. Quickness, we have seen all along, is reckoned in America among the highest merits whether of teacher or learner; and this method is quickness attaining its maximum. It may be questioned whether it is not pushed a little too far—sometimes to the exclusion of reflection. It would not be in the hands of so accomplished a teacher as Miss Mitchell, but such might be the result with less skilful performers.

Another peculiarity of the Westfield methods which struck me is the way in which they remedy the defect of having no experimental school. They experiment one upon another. During recitation very little instruction is given by the teacher. Each pupil in turn plays the teacher's part, and questions the class, teacher included, on prepared subjects. Lessons are prepared, not in the usual American mode, by learning so many pages of a particular text-book, but by acquiring information on the subject of the lesson from any source. This, coupled with the mode of teaching, seems to quicken self-development and intelligence. I heard recitations in physiology, mathematical geography, rhetoric, and natural philosophy. They were of a kind to exhibit to advantage the peculiar methods of the institution, and were highly interesting.

The school hours are six hours a day, of which perhaps four are spent in recitation, two in study. Home lessons occupy about three hours. Students are bound to take one hour's exercise every day, and to be in bed by 10 o'clock, and six hours' sleep is insisted upon as a minimum. On the Friday of each week every student presents to the Principal a report of himself or herself, in which is shown, for each day, the rising hour, the retiring hour, the study hours, the school hours, the exercise hours, church attendance, &c.

There are six teachers, three male (including the Principal), and three female, and a special teacher of vocal music. The mixture of the sexes among the students is said to be provocative of a good deal of intellectual rivalry. As far as I had an opportunity of judging, the male students appeared a heavy lot as compared with their bright and lively school-mates of the other sex. But they were in such a terrible minority of numbers—about one to nine—that perhaps I mistook shyness for dullness. It is certain that the young ladies shone most in the recitations which I listened to.

The chief defect, to an English eye, in these training institutions is the impossibility, under their conditions of existence, of exercising any effective control or influence over the moral character of the students. They are only under their teacher's eye during recitation. The development that is most attended to is the intellectual. No doubt gross instances of irregularity or misconduct would be detected and punished; but a very imperfect, or a very distorted moral character might be forming itself unnoticed and unknown. But, I think, Americans, in most cases, have less confidence than we have in the beneficial results of supervision, and more confidence than we have in the generally right bias of the human heart. We may each push our principles to an extreme, in the one case destroying self-reliance, in the other removing salutary restraints. But I am not prepared dogmatically to assert that we are right and they are wrong.

APPENDIX K.

Harvard and Yale Universities.

A sketch of the American common school system would be incomplete without some notice, however brief, of the University, to which the common school was intended by its founders, in its highest grade, immediately to lead.* The "University at Cambridge" is mentioned by name in the Massachusetts School Law as charged with certain definite educational duties towards the State;† and this, with its sister institution, Yale College, at Newhaven, Connecticut, as they are the oldest,‡ so are they still considered the best,§ educational institutions in the country.

Number of Colleges and Universities in the United States.

The incomplete return, as it is admitted to be, in the National Almanac for 1864 of the colleges in the United States, still enumerates 236 of these institutions, commencing with Bowdoin College in Maine, connected with the congregational community, and terminating with Sublimity College in Oregon, organized by the United Brethren in Christ. It will be manifestly more satisfactory to confine our attention to one or two of the more remarkable or characteristic, than to attempt a vague and illusory conspectus of the whole, and for this purpose it will, perhaps, be sufficient if I describe the constitution and working of Harvard, collating in foot-notes any marked differences or divergences which I observed at Yale or elsewhere.

Mostly denominational.

By far the greater number—probably nine-tenths of the whole of these institutions are denominational in their constitution, though a few States, such as Illinois, Ohio, Kansas, Iowa, Michigan, have founded and maintain State Universities, on the same principles on which they have founded and maintain Common Schools, from which, of course, religious denominationalism is excluded.‖ Harvard and Yale, too, are denominational, the former under Unitarian, the latter under Congregational, influences: but in neither case are the influences very strong; students are received of every religious faith; and

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* "When the free school system was established in Massachusetts, it was provided that every township containing 100 families or householders should set up a grammar school, the master whereof should be able to instruct youth so far as they may be fitted for the University." (*Mr. Boutwell in 24th Report*, p. 91.)

† "It shall be the duty of the president, professors, and tutors of the University at Cambridge, and of the several colleges, of all preceptors and teachers of academies and of all other instructors of youth, to exert their best endeavours to impress on the minds of children and youth committed to their care and instruction, the principles of piety and justice and a sacred regard to truth; love of their country, humanity and universal benevolence; sobriety, industry, and frugality; chastity, moderation, and temperance, and those other virtues which are the ornament of human society and the basis upon which a republican constitution is founded; and it shall be the duty of such instructors to endeavour to lead their pupils, as their ages and capacities will admit, into a clear understanding of the tendency of the above-mentioned virtues, to preserve and perfect a republican constitution and secure the blessings of liberty, as well as to promote their future happiness, and also to point out to them the evil tendency of the opposite vices." (*Revised Statutes*, ch. 23, s. 7.)

‡ Harvard University was organized in 1640; Yale in 1700. The titles "college" and "university" are used indifferently in speaking of these institutions, and that not merely in popular language, but in their own authentic calendars and reports. The name Harvard commemorates the benefaction of an English clergyman, the Rev John Harvard, who died in 1638 and bequeathed to the school at Newtown, since called Cambridge, his library and one-half of his property. Its second title, "Cambridge," was probably borrowed, by imitation, from England: for it appears that the town, in which the University is situated, owes its name to the College, not the College to the town.

Both Harvard and Yale enjoy the advantage of charming situations. The former lies about three miles out of Boston, in a precinct quite academic in its character; the latter is in the heart of the beautiful city of Newhaven, embowered in the magnificent trees which give to Newhaven, according to American usage, the appellative name of the "Elm City." A plague of caterpillars, however, to which many American cities appear to be periodically subject, made Newhaven, in spite of its beautiful walks and vistas, a less pleasant residence in the spring of 1865 than it would be at other times. You could not venture into the streets without becoming an involuntary collector, to an inconvenient extent, and upon every part of your person, of these voracious little grubs, myriads of which were pasturing on the foliage of every tree.

§ "The best educational institutions in our country, such as Yale and Harvard." (*Dr. Tappan's Review of his Connection with the University of Michigan*, p. 6.)

‖ In theory; but, not unnaturally, the influences of denominationalism are often felt in practice. Thus Dr. Tappan speaks in 1864 of the University of Michigan: "In the late changes "in the university, the public have detected very much of denominational intrigue and adjust-"ment. Thus events are shaped by slowly accumulating influences. They accumulate often "so slowly, and come from such a variety of sources, that when events spring upon us, we are "embarrassed in accounting for them. I may not be aware of the full extent of denominational "influences, or I may have overrated them. Some of them, too, may belong to the body of a "denomination, and some merely to the individuals of a denomination." (*Review, &c.*, p. 38). Anyhow, they exist, and, in fact, were among the causes which led to the "outrage" of the Board of Regents "in removing Dr. Tappan from the presidency."

the rights of conscience are protected by certain remissions of the obligation to attend the religious services of the chapel, which practically leave the student free.*

Harvard and Yale both embrace an Academical Department, and four collateral and in a certain sense independent schools, in the respective branches of Divinity, Law, Medicine, and what at Harvard is called "Science," at Yale, "Philosophy and the Arts;" to which at Harvard must be added an Astronomical Observatory, which in 1865 could only boast of a single student, and a Museum of Comparative Zoology, which, though founded in 1859, is still incomplete, though bidding fair, under the auspices of its accomplished curator, Professor Agassiz, to be one of the most perfectly organized collections in the world. Harvard and Yale.

Each of these schools or departments, as well as the Observatory and the Museum at Harvard, is under the management of a separate board, called the "Faculty," composed of the teachers in that department and the President of the University, who is, *ex officio*, its chairman. The Faculty conduct the instruction of the students, and at Harvard form a board, who meet once a week, at least in the Academic Department, to determine the course of studies and methods of discipline to be pursued, and generally to settle the administration of the Department. Degrees in each department in which they are conferred, are conferred by the Corporation of the University on the recommendation of the Faculty of the particular school. The Faculty.

The Corporation (whose legal title is "The President and Fellows of Harvard College) consists of the President of the University, five Fellows and a Treasurer. The Fellows are not bound to residence, but a house is provided for the President, who is the principal executive officer of the University. The Corporation is self-elected, and its functions are to hold all University property in trust,† to control all expenses, to confer degrees, and to elect all teachers and officers of the University, subject to the approval of the Overseers. The Corporation.

The Overseers, as the name implies, represent the visitatorial power, which is claimed and exercised by the State. They are a body of 37 gentlemen, very miscellaneous in its composition, of which the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor of the Commonwealth, the President of the Senate, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, the Secretary of the Board of Education, and the President and Treasurer of the University (who, as belonging both to the overseers and the overseen thus occupy a somewhat anomalous position, though probably useful as media of communication) are *ex-officio* members, the remaining 30 being elected by the Legislature of the State. The elected members are divided into six sections of five each, one of which goes out of office every year.‡ The Overseers.

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* The rule at Harvard is: "There are daily devotional services, with the reading of the "Scriptures, and singing in the college chapel. All undergraduates are required to be present, "as they are also at public worship in the chapel on Sunday, except such as have special per- "mission, at the request of their parents or guardians, to attend other congregations in the city "of Cambridge or elsewhere." *Harvard Catalogue for* 1864–65, p. 37. The rule at Yale is similar, except that the special permission is limited to attendance on the worship of those other denominations to which the applicant's parents belong. A fundamental difference, *quâ* the conscience, appears to be made between the daily and the Sunday services, the "special permission" being limited to the latter. The addition of a sermon on Sunday, probably, accounts for the difference. Students are recommended to withdraw, if frequently absent either from prayers or recitations; and regularity of attendance is further secured by a system of "deductions" of marks, which tell upon a student's place in his class.

† The property of the Museum of Comparative Zoology, however, is held by an independent board of trustees.

‡ At Yale there is nothing in the constitution of the University answering to the overseers of Harvard. But the "Corporation" is much larger: it consists of the President and ten clerical members, self-elected, and the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and six senior senators of the State, members *ex officio*. The *ex-officio* members, who were added to the corporation in 1792, have nothing to do with the election of the clerical Fellows.

The constitution of the Board of Overseers at Harvard is not considered satisfactory, as there is no guarantee of any kind to secure the election of persons interested in, or qualified to control, the affairs of a university. A bill was in progress in 1865, in fact, in its last stage, and only awaiting the approval of the overseers themselves, for presentation to the Legislature, proposing that the overseers for the future shall be elected by the graduates of the University.

There exists, I was informed, a vague and undefined, but still real, jealousy on the part of the State towards colleges. They are regarded as institutions of a more or less exclusive, and so aristocratic character, and are, therefore, left to be supported by private liberality and enterprise. In 1814 the State made an appropriation of 100,000 dols. to Harvard, which was spent on buildings; but this is all the public assistance which that university has received. The bulk of its buildings, the endowments of its professorships, the exhibitions for students, in fact, all its funded property, amounting in the aggregate to upwards of 1,600,000 dols. (exclusive of buildings and land), are the gifts of individual benefactors, whose names, in most cases, remain stamped on their benefaction.

Though the Board of Overseers have no power of originating measures they have important powers both of restriction and of supervision. They have a right of veto on all the proceedings of the Corporation; they appoint the Committees who superintend the annual examinations in the academical department; they audit the accounts; and exercise a real, not a merely nominal, visitatorial power. From their theoretic relations, it might be expected that collisions between the Overseers and the Corporation would occasionally occur, but I was not given to understand that such was the case.

The Teaching Staff.

The officers of instruction and government employed in the University mount up to a goodly number, and exhibit on their list many distinguished names. There are about 40 professors and assistant professors, a few of whom lecture in two departments; four tutors, four instructors, and seven proctors, employed exclusively in the academical department; a preacher, registrar, observer, librarian, steward, and regent.* Discipline is maintained by a so-called Parietal Committee, consisting of 15 members, among whom are the proctors, the tutors, and two or three of the professors, who have apartments assigned to them in each staircase, and are responsible for order and quiet being observed there. The salaries of these officers at Harvard are—of the President, including the estimated value of his residence, $3,000; of the professors, $2,600; of the tutors, $800; of the proctors, $100, rooms in college being added to the salary in the two last-named cases. The proctors are generally graduates who are pursuing special studies, most frequently in the law school, who are glad to take the office even with so low a salary in order to economize their own expenditure. Discipline, though nominally and by the letter of the statutes strict, is really lax. The buildings are not arranged on the quadrangular plan, and consequently there is no porter's lodge, or common gateway; nor is there any hour at night by which students are required to be in their rooms. As a consequence, stress is laid upon points of discipline that are less indicative of moral character,—upon attendance at prayers and recitations; and a student who is careful of himself in these respects, and refrains from boisterous conduct on his staircase, might probably be guilty of almost every unstatutable irregularity without drawing down upon himself the notice of the proctor, or the animadversion of the authorities.† Students, I was informed,

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* The teaching staff is thus distributed. In the "College" or Academical Department are employed 11 Professors, two Assistant Professors, and four Tutors, viz.: a professor of Christian morals; of astronomy and mathematics; of natural religion, moral philosophy, and civil polity; of mathematics and natural philosophy; of ancient and modern history; of ancient, Byzantine, and modern Greek; of the French and Spanish languages and literatures, and of belles-lettres; of rhetoric and oratory; of Latin; of chemistry and mineralogy; of Greek literature; assistant-professors of Latin and mathematics, and tutors in elocution, mathematics, Latin and Greek.

In the Divinity School, three professors; of Hebrew and Oriental languages; of ecclesiastical history, and of pulpit eloquence and the pastoral care; and lecturers, at present combined with the professorships, on Biblical literature and Christian theology.

In the School of law, three professors of law, dealing with different branches of the subject, and a lecturer on the law of nations.

In the School of Medicine, 10 professors; of obstetrics and medical jurisprudence; of morbid anatomy; of clinical medicine; of anatomy and physiology; of the theory and practice of physic (two); of chemistry; of surgery; of the physiology and pathology of the nervous system; of materia medica.

In the Scientific School, nine professors; of zoology and geology (two); of astronomy and mathematics; of natural philosophy; of natural history; of engineering; of chemistry and mineralogy; of the application of the sciences to the useful arts; of anatomy.

† M. Siljestrom enumerates the offences signalized in the penal laws of the University, a code which he thinks "illustrates the strict manners and morals of New England," and which would be intolerable, he imagines, to a Swedish or German student. "The offences for which students "are subjected to punishment are divided into two classes, viz., high offences and misde-"meanors. The first class is again subdivided, and embraces, among other things, indecorous "conduct at prayers and in church, rude behaviour to the functionaries of the University, bois-"terous conduct calculated to disturb the inhabitants of the city or of the University, insulting "behaviour to other students, swearing, drunkenness, indecent language, dress, or conduct, "continued extravagance after warning has been given, gambling for money or other valuable "objects, intercourse with persons who have undergone expulsion or other disreputable per-"sons, the possession and use of firearms, visiting theatrical representations in term-time, parti-"cipation in any assembly within the precincts of the University in which intoxicating drinks "are partaken of, visiting public-houses in the city for the purposes of eating or drinking except "in the company of guardians." "Among the misdemeanors are numbered the keeping of a "horse or dog without due permission, playing at cards or with dice, smoking in the streets or "in the grounds of the University, entering the chapel, the auditories, or any other public place "with a walking-stick in the hand, singing, or playing on any instrument until after 6 o'clock in "the evening, talking from the window to persons in the yard, &c., &c." (*Educational Institutions of the United States*, p. 355, English translation).

This formidable list of offences and misdemeanors, with their accompanying pains and penalties is practically as obsolete as similar prohibitions and penalties in the pages of the Statute-book of Oxford. At the same time, as far as I could judge, the moral tone of Harvard and Yale was not unsatisfactory. No doubt at both places, as in similar institutions at home, there would be found among 1,500 students "lewd fellows of the baser sort;" but the general tone of society seemed to me healthy and gentlemanlike.

are rarely dismissed; but they are sometimes recommended to withdraw their names, if frequently absent from chapel or from lectures, or if they fall much below the level of their class.

The view of the university will be clearer if we treat separately each department of its quintuple organization. It embraces, as already noticed, an Academic Department, and Schools of Divinity, Law, Medicine, and Practical Science. To speak first of the Academic Department, or, as it is sometimes called, "the College."

THE ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT.

The object of the Academic Department is to give a general liberal education. The course of instruction normally occupies four years, and terminates with graduation in the degree of Bachelor of Arts.* The undergraduates are distributed into four classes (corresponding with the year of the course), to which are given the usual titles,—Freshmen, Sophomores, Juniors, Seniors. The numbers in each class in the academic year 1864–65 were 91, 102, 112, and 80 respectively.

Matriculation.

All candidates for admission to any class in the College must in the first place be examined for admission to the Freshman Class.† Each class has its regular period for examination, and no person can be examined for admission at any other time. Every candidate, before examination, must produce satisfactory testimonials of good moral character; and if admitted, must give a bond for $400—at Yale for $200 only—to pay all charges accruing under the laws and customs of the University. At Yale, the bond must be executed by the candidate's parent or guardian; at Harvard, by two bondsmen, one of whom must be a citizen of Massachusetts.

Caution money.

Admission to advanced standing.

The normal period of instruction may be shortened by a contrivance which is called the admission of students to advanced standing. This may be done up to as late a stage in the period as the first term of the senior year, which would have the effect of reducing the period, and consequently the expense, of residence to twelve months. The conditions that must be fulfilled in order to obtain this privilege are, that the candidate, whether from another college or not, must appear on examination to be well versed,—

1. In the studies required for admission to the Freshman class.
2. In the *required* studies already gone over by the class for which he offers himself; and
3. If he apply for admission to the Senior class, in one of the *elective* studies of the Junior year.‡

He must also pay the steward at the rate of $45 per annum, according to the standing at which he is admitted. Any student, however, who has a regular dismission from another college, may be admitted to the same standing, if found qualified on examination, without any pecuniary consideration. This charge for advanced standing is also remitted to indigent students.§

Age of admission.

The ordinary age of admission at Harvard is from 16 to 18, but I do not observe that any minimum or maximum is fixed; at Yale the rule is that "no

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* The degree of Master of Arts is conferred in course on every Bachelor of Arts of three years' standing, on the payment of a fee of 5 dols., who shall in the interval have sustained a good moral character. The average age at which students graduate is 21 or 22.

† The examination programme is as follows:—

Latin—Virgil, Cæsar's Commentaries, Cicero's Select Orations, grammar, prosody, and composition.

Greek—Felton's Greek Reader, or the whole of the Anabasis of Xenophon and the first three books of the Iliad, grammar, prosody, and "writing Greek with the accents."

Mathematics—Arithmetic, algebra, and two books of geometry.

History, &c.—The History of Greece and Rome, and ancient and modern geography, text-books in each case being specified.

The subjects at Yale are somewhat easier; only a portion of Virgil is required, Sallust is substituted for Cæsar, Latin composition is limited to the twelve first chapters of Arnold's Exercises.

In Greek three books of the Anabasis are sufficient; no Homer is required; no Greek composition.

In lieu of the histories of Greece and Rome Englishgrammar is required. The other studies remain the same.

‡ "Elective" studies are those which may be pursued at the option of the student. All the studies of the freshman and sophomore years are *required*. In the junior year, mathematics, chemistry, patristic and modern Greek, German, Italian, and French are elective studies.

§ The payment required at Yale on admission to advanced standing is only one-third of the amount required at Harvard. "Any person admitted to an advanced standing, unless coming "from another college, pays the sum of 5 dols. as tuition money for every term which has been "completed by the class which he enters." The exception, "unless coming from another "college," appears to indicate that such candidates are not required to make any payment at all. At Yale the academic year consists of *three* terms, of 14, 14, and 12 weeks respectively; at Harvard of two terms of 20 weeks each. The vacations at Yale are three also, seven, two, and three weeks long; at Harvard they are two, each of six weeks' duration.

" one can be admitted to the Freshman class till he has completed his 14th " year, nor to an advanced standing without a proportional increase of age." At Yale, also, even after examination, they are only considered students on probation, till, after a residence of six months, they are admitted to matriculation on satisfactory evidence of good moral character.

Course of study.

The College course consists of prescribed, elective, and extra studies. Prescribed and elective studies are credited on the scale which determines a student's place in his class; but no marks are allowed for an extra study, either in recitation or examination, though the penalties for neglect, absence, and tardiness apply equally to all.

Prescribed and elective studies.

All the studies of the Freshman year are prescribed, as are all those of the Sophomore year, except French, which may be taken as an extra.

The *prescribed* studies of the Junior year are Greek, Latin, Physics, Chemistry, Rhetoric, Themes, and Declamation. The *elective* studies are Mathematics, Chemistry, Patristic and Modern Greek, German, Italian, and French. One elective study must be taken; one other may be allowed, but only as an extra. Mathematics, however, may be substituted for the prescribed Greek or Latin, in which case another elective study may take the place of Mathematics.

Of the Senior year, the prescribed studies are Philosophy (including Logic, Political Economy, and Ethics), History, Constitutional Law and Forensics (or written Debates conducted by the class). The elective studies are Greek, Latin, Mathematics, and Advanced Italian, each with a maximum mark of eight; and Patristic Greek, German, Italian, and Spanish, each with a maximum mark of six. One elective study, as before, must be taken; one other may be allowed, but only as an extra.

Elective and extra studies are specially applied for in writing, before a fixed date, at the office of a functionary called the Regent, and on failure of such application the Faculty make the selection. An elective study, once taken, must be continued through the year, and no change can be made from one extra study to another except at the beginning of a term, and then only with the express consent of the Faculty.

The following programme of the Academic year 1864–5 will show the amount of work achieved or attempted by each class:—

Course of Instruction in 1864–5.

Freshman Class.

First Term.

1. *Greek.*—Homer's Odyssey, three books. The Panegyricus of Isocrates. Goodwin's Greek Moods and Tenses. Exercises in writing Greek.
2. *Latin.*—Livy (Lincoln's Selections). Ramsay's Elementary Manual of Roman Antiquities. Zumpt's Grammar. Exercises in writing Latin.
3. *Mathematics.*—Peirce's Geometry. Peirce's Algebra begun.
4. *Ethics.*—Champlin's First Principles of Ethics. Whately's Lessons on the Evidences of Christianity.
5. *Elocution.*
6. *Means of preserving Health.*—Lectures.
7. *Integral Education.*—Lectures.

Second Term.

1. *Greek.*—Felton's Greek Historians. The Medea of Euripides. Greek Antiquities. Goodwin's Greek Moods and Tenses. Exercise in writing Greek.
2. *Latin.*—Horace, Odes and Epodes. Zumpt's Grammar. Ramsay's Manual of Roman Antiquities. Exercises in writing Latin.
3. *Mathematics.*—Peirce's Algebra finished (including Logarithms). Peirce's Plane Trigonometry, with Bowditch's Tables.
4. *History.*—Smith's History of Greece.
5. *Elocution.*

Sophomore Class.

First Term.

1. *Grammar.*—Angus's Handbook of the English Tongue. Themes.
2. *Mathematics.*—Peirce's Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, and Navigation and Surveying. Peirce's Curves and Functions.

3. *Greek.*—The Birds of Aristophanes. Demosthenes de Falsa Legatione. Exercises in writing Greek.
4. *Latin.*—Cicero pro Cluentio. Horace. Beck's Syntax, and Zumpt's Grammar. Exercises in writing Latin.
5. *Elocution.*
6. *Chemistry.*
7. *French.*—Otto's Grammar. La France Littéraire, par Burguy, 19me siècle.

Second Term.

1. *Rhetoric.*—Themes. Readings in English Literature.
2. *Mathematics.*—Peirce's Curves and Functions finished.
3. *Greek.*—Demosthenes. Grote's History of Greece, vol. xi., ch. 86–90. Exercises in writing Greek.
4. *Latin.*—Cicero de Officiis. Horace. Exercises in writing Latin.
5. *Natural History.*—Gray's Botanical Text-book.
6. *Molicular Physics.*—Cooke's Chemical Philosophy. Lectures.
7. *Elocution.*
8. *French.*—Otto's Grammar. La France Littéraire, 18me siècle.

Junior Class.

First Term.

1. *Physics.*—Herschel's Outlines of Astronomy. Lectures on Electro-Statics
2. *Rhetoric.*—Themes and Declamations.
3. *Molicular Physics.*—Cooke's Chemical Physics. Lectures.
4. *Greek.*—The Alcestis of Euripides. The Seven against Thebes of Æschylus. Exercises in writing Greek.
5. *Latin.*—Horace's Epistles. Latin Exercises and Extemporalia.

Elective Studies.

1. *Mathematics.*—Peirce's Algebra, ch. viii. Curves and Functions, vol. i.
2. *Chemistry.*—Fowne's Chemistry. Fresenius's Qualitative Analysis, with instruction in the Laboratory.
3. *French.*—Otto's Grammar. La France Littéraire, 16me, 17me, and 19me siècles.
4. *German.*—Otto's Grammar and Exercises. Foller's German Reader.
5. *Spanish.*—Josse's Grammar and Exercises. Sales' La Colmena Española. Iriarte's Fabulas Literarias.
6. *Patristic and Modern Greek.*

Second Term.

1. *Rhetoric.*—Whately's Rhetoric. Themes and Declamations.
2. *Physics.*—Lardner's Course of Natural Philosophy (optics). Lectures on Electro-Dynamics.
3. *Greek.*—Demosthenes. Exercises in writing Greek.
4. *Latin.*—Tacitus. Latin Exercises and Extemporalia.

Elective Studies.

1. *Mathematics.*—Peirce's Curves and Functions, vol. i. concluded, vol. ii. commenced.
2. *Chemistry and Mineralogy.*—Dana's Manual. Crystallography.
3. *French.*—Translations from English into French. Lessons in Etymology. French Comedies.
4. *German.*—The same books as in the First Term
5. *Spanish.*—Don Quixote.
6. *Botany.*—Lectures.
7. Patristic and Modern Greek.

SENIOR CLASS.

First Term.

1. *Logic and Philosophy.* — Bowen's Logic. Hamilton's Metaphysics. Forensics.
2. *Political Economy.*—Bowen's Political Economy.
3. *Physics.*—Lectures on Optics, Acoustics, and Electricity.
4. *History.*—Constitution of the United States. History of France: Stephen and De Tocqueville.

Elective and Extra Studies.

1. *Mathematics.*—Peirce's Curves and Functions, vol. ii. concluded.
2. *Greek.*—Æschines and Demosthenes on the Crown. Greek Composition.
3. *Latin.*—Lucretius. Latin Exercises and Extemporalia.
4. *German.*—Freitag's Die Journalisten. Written translations from Longfellow's Outre-Mer.
5. *Spanish.*—Gil Blas. Sales's Grammar.
6. *Italian.*—Niccolò dei Lapi. Fontana's Grammar.
7. *Modern Literature.*—Lectures.
8. *Patristic and Modern Greek.*
9. *Geology.*—Lectures.
10. *Anatomy.*—Lectures.

Second Term.

1. *Philosophy.*—Bowen's Ethics and Metaphysics. Forensics.
2. *History.*—Constitutional History of England.
3. *Religious Instruction.*—Peabody's Lowell Lectures.

Elective and Extra Studies.

1. *Mathematics.*—Peirce's Analytical Mechanics.
2. *Greek.*—Plato's Republic. Lectures. Greek composition.
3. *Latin.*—Cicero against Verres. Latin Exercises and Extemporalia.
4. *German.*—Auerbach's Joseph in Schnee. Written translations from Longfellow's Outre-Mer.
5. *Spanish.*—Calderon's El Principe Constante and El Mágico Prodigioso.
6. *Italian.*—Dante.
7. *Zoology.*—Lectures.
8. *Modern Literature.*—Lectures.
9. *Modern and Patristic Greek.*

I was informed by one of the Professors that the studies which are pursued with most success are the Physical Sciences, particularly Chemistry, Moral and Intellectual Philosophy, and English Literature. The Classics are cultivated with only moderate results (in the last year, it will be seen, they pass into the list of *optional* studies); and no great range is reached in Mathematics, the Professor in that department, though an accomplished scholar in his science, being deficient in practical skill and power of interesting, as a teacher.

Exercises.

Besides the above-mentioned course of study, certain exercises in composition and elocution are periodically performed by the classes. The Sophomore and Freshman classes have each an exercise in elocution once a week, and the Sophomore class write Themes once in four weeks. The Junior class has an exercise in Declamation every week, and one in Theme-writing once a fortnight. The Senior class has an exercise in Forensics—written debates on a given argument, conducted by members of the class—once a fortnight. Each class writes Greek and Latin Exercises.*

* These exercises do not amount to much. A student of the junior class told me that not more than about eight exercises are worked in a year. In the year 1864-5, in the junior class, they were exclusively verse compositions. A prize is annually offered, though not always awarded, for Latin versification; and another for Greek prose composition. There are also annual prizes for "English dissertations, for elocution, and for the best readers aloud of English prose." With great wisdom, considering the prevailing American taste, in the selection of passages for the latter purpose, declamatory pieces are avoided, and such narratives, descriptions, or essays are chosen as require varied expression and correct enunciation. The prizes in these different departments of excellence vary in value from 50 to 10 dols., those for excellence in reading aloud being of nearly as high value as any of the rest.

The Lecture or Recitation List occupies seven hours a day, from 8 to 1 in the morning, and from 4 to 6 in the afternoon, for five days in the week, and three hours, from 8 to 11, on Saturday.* The youngest class gets most lectures; the oldest class fewest; but no student appears to be required to attend more than four recitations a day, and the seniors not often more than two. The classes which, as we have seen, contain on the average about 100 students apiece,—the Freshmen and Sophomore, being generally the largest,—are broken up into manageable divisions, the Seniors and Juniors into three, the Sophomores and Freshmen into four. Recitations, as a rule, are an hour long, but occasionally, as in the case of Latin and Greek in the last year, they are reduced to half that time. Hours of Lecture.

The American Universities have not adopted the plan of their English sisters, of employing a Class or Honour List to indicate the relative merits of their graduating students; but the students who stand highest in the Senior class are selected to deliver certain "Orations" at the Commencement, and the "Valedictorian" of Harvard and Yale is equivalent to the Senior Wrangler at Cambridge of his year. Honours.

At Harvard each class is examined annually in writing, in the several studies of the year, before Committees appointed for the purpose by the Overseers, and the results of these examinations have an important, though not an exclusive, bearing on the rank of the student in his class, and, in some cases, on his continuance in College.† Examinations.

A comparison of the numbers of students given in the respective catalogues for the year 1864–5 shows that, though Yale has a superiority over Harvard in the Academical Department, yet, including the Special schools, the numerical advantage remains with the latter. The following table gives the actual figures:— Number of Students.

Academical Students.	Harvard.	Yale.
Seniors	80	98
Juniors	112	105
Sophomores	102	121
Freshmen	91	134
	385	458
Special Schools.		
Theology	17	23
Law	125	32
Medicine	216	47
Science or philosophy	72	84
Astronomical Student	1	0
Resident graduates	9	0
	825	644

Classes, I was told, are apt to dwindle from various causes. The Senior class which graduated in 1865 had had, taking the whole of its career, about 140 students belonging to it; yet not more than 80 proceeded to a degree. Of the class of 1852 at Yale, of which the original number was 148, only 90 graduated.

The necessary annual expenses of a student in the academical department, whether at Harvard or Yale, are estimated at about $400, say 80*l.* (exclusive of apparel, pocket-money, travelling expenses, and board in vacations), a sum not very widely differing from the ordinary amount of "battels" at Oxford or Expense.

* During the first term, which begins in September, till after the thanksgiving recess in November, morning prayers are at 6.45 a.m., and the hour of dinner is 1 o'clock. After the recess chapel and dinner are put an hour later.

† At Yale public examinations of the classes are held at the close of each term, *i.e.*, three times a year, corresponding to Oxford "collections;" and twice in the college course, at the close of the sophomore and senior years, answering to "moderations" and the "final examinations" at Oxford, on the studies of the two preceding years. The biennial examinations are conducted wholly in writing, and are continued, not however unremittingly, for a period of between two and three weeks.

Cambridge,* though it must not be forgotten that it covers half as long again a period of time. I was told at Yale that their most expensive men, some of whom kept a horse, would spend perhaps $1,200 in the 40 weeks which constitute the academic year; and at Harvard that an average student's expenditure would range from $600 to $800. The item of dress would account for most of the difference.

The Patron or Guardian.

In order to check extravagance in the case of students whose home is more than 100 miles away, and who may be supposed, therefore, to be beyond the supervision of their parents, an officer of the University called "the Patron" is appointed for parents who wish to avail themselves of his services. The parent remits to the patron the sums that he is informed are necessary to defray the college bills of his son and sufficient to satisfy his personal wants, and the patron takes the whole control of the same, under the direction of the faculty. No student entrusted to the patron is allowed to contract any debt without his order, or without the sanction of his parent or guardian; and the patron is allowed to charge in the term-bill 2½ per cent. on all disbursements as a compensation for his responsibility.†

Help to indigent and meritorious Students.

Considerable assistance is afforded to indigent or meritorious students both at Yale and Harvard through the medium of scholarships, beneficiary and loan funds, monitorships, &c. In some cases the scholarship is held, upon the fulfilment of certain conditions, for the whole academic course; ‡ but more usually, at least at Harvard, the tenure is only for a year; and the obtaining a scholarship for one year does not constitute any title to a second nomination, unless the superiority for which it was originally granted is fully maintained.

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* The following estimates are given in the official catalogues:—

HARVARD.

Instruction, library, lecture-rooms, gymnasium, &c.	dols. 104
Rent and care of room in college (average)	28
Board for 40 weeks at 6 dols. per week	240
Text-books (average)	16
Special repairs, &c.	2
	dols. 390

Fuel and washing are not reckoned. The rent of rooms in private houses is from 52 dols. to 150 dols. a year. The price of board at Cambridge is stated to vary from 5 dols. to 7 dols. a week. In making comparisons it must be remembered that both at Harvard and Yale two students occupy a room. Wood is charged at from 11 dols. to 13 dols. a cord; and coal at from 13 dols. to 19 dols. a ton. At both colleges students find their own bedding, furniture, fuel, lights, &c.

YALE.

Treasurer's bill.	
For tuition	dols. 45
„ rent and care of room in college	20
„ expenses of public rooms, repairs, &c.	10
„ use of gymnasium	4
„ society tax	6
	dols. 85

Other necessary expenses.	
Board, 40 weeks	dols. 140 to 200
Fuel and lights	15 „ 25
Books and stationery	1 „ 20
Use of furniture and bedding	10 „ 20
Washing	15 „ 25
	190 to 290
Total	dols. 275 to 375

The price of board, which is obtained either in clubs or messes of ten or a dozen students each or in boarding-houses, the former being the cheaper mode, appears to be lower at Newhaven than at Cambridge. It is estimated for Yale students at from 3.50 dols. to 5 dols.; in the majority of cases 4.50 dols.

We have already seen that bonds are required, answering to our caution money, at Harvard to the amount of 400 dols., at Yale of 200 dols., to cover possible college liabilities. Also, no degree can be conferred till all dues to the college are discharged.

† At Harvard the patron must not be of the faculty. At Yale he must; and he is there called the "college guardian." The relation of the latter officer to the students is nearly the same as that of a tutor to his pupils at our Cambridge, though I am not aware in the latter case that any "commission is charged for services."

‡ As for instance, the scholarship of 60 dols. a year awarded at Yale to the student in each Freshman class who passes the best examination in Latin composition, in Greek, and in the solution of algebraic problems. Harvard is much richer in scholarships than Yale, as regards both the number of such benefactions and their annual value. The most valuable scholarship at Yale is only 120 dols. a year.

Some of the Yale scholarships are founded with the object of encouraging graduates to continue to reside at the University for the purpose of pursuing a course of study (not professional) under the direction of the faculty. Most of the Yale scholarships are tenable, if residence is maintained, for two, three, or four years.

Sometimes scholarships are granted, after special examination, for proficiency in special subjects; in other cases recommendations or nominations are made to the Corporation or the trustees of the particular scholarship by the Faculty, guided principally by the student's scale of rank for the year.

There are 38 scholarships at Harvard, varying in value from $100 to $300 a year. Some of them have been founded by the class that graduated in a particular year; another by persons educated at a particular academy in honour of its late Principal; several by bequests; many by donations of living friends of the University. The scholar receives one-half of the annual income immediately upon the assignment of the scholarship, and the remaining half at the end of the following half year.

Beneficiary Fund.

"Various bequests and donations have from time to time been made to the Corporation of Harvard, the income of which is appropriated to the aid of deserving students in narrow circumstances. The annual distribution from this source is about $1,400, which has usually been given as a gratuity, in sums ranging from $20 to $60. As some students prefer to receive the aid in the form of a loan, the income of the fund is divided into two parts, one of which is given as a gratuity and the other granted on loan."* Applications for aid must be addressed to the President either by the student himself, if of age, or by his parent or guardian, stating the special circumstances of the case, on or before the 1st day of June in each year.

Loan Fund.

Another fund, called the Loan Fund, has been raised at Harvard by subscription among friends of the University, the interest of which, amounting to about $1,200, is lent to meritorious students who may apply for it in sums varying from 20 to $80. This is an increasing fund, about $8,000 having been already added to the principal by reimbursements.

Monitorships.

About $480 are also paid to monitors—a class of students corresponding to the Bible-clerks at Oxford—of whom there is one attached to each class, whose business is to take note of and report absences from morning prayers and Sunday chapel services.

Leave of absence.

Deserving students, also, in narrow circumstances are permitted, at the discretion of the faculty, to be absent for a limited time not exceeding 13 weeks, including the winter vacation, for the purpose of keeping school, and in this way supplying themselves with the necessary funds for their academical education.

Private aid.

Many indigent students, further, are maintained at the University entirely at the cost of individual, and not unfrequently unknown, benefactors. Indeed, I was informed that a promising student is certain to meet with assistance from some quarter or other sufficient to enable him to graduate; and the sacrifices that are often made by members of his own family for this purpose are very heroic and remarkable.

Lodging and Boarding-houses.

The rules relating to lodging and boarding-houses for under-graduates are, at least on paper, very stringent. Of the 385 under-graduates at Harvard 112 lodge in the town, and *all* board in private establishments. There is neither "kitchen" nor "buttery" attached to the college itself. The Faculty reserve to themselves the prerogative of approving the houses in which students either lodge or board; and they have laid down the regulations to which they require them to conform.

1. It must be a house occupied by a family, and not a hotel or house of public entertainment.

2. Immediate notice of any festive entertainment, riotous noise, or improper conduct at table is to be given by the keeper of the house to the president.

3. No wine or spirituous liquors are to be used, and no smoking to be permitted at the table or in the dining-room.

4. The hours of meals must be made to suit the time prescribed for college exercises and recitations.

5. A list of approved boarding-houses, with a tariff of prices, is kept at the Steward's office for inspection, and within a fortnight from the beginning of

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* *Harvard Catalogue*, p. 39. There is a similar fund, with the same name, at Yale yielding an income of upwards of 2,800 dols. which is applied to the assistance of necessitous students, especially of those who are preparing for the Christian ministry. About 70 have thus their tuition (the ordinary charge for which is 45 dols.) wholly or in part remitted. There is, also at Yale an institution called the Benevolent Library, which supplies indigent students with the text-books used in the college course without charge.

each term the keeper of every such house must forward to the Regent of the University a list of his boarders. No student is allowed to change either his room in college or his boarding-house without immediate notice of his doing so, in the former case to the Registrar, in the latter case to the Regent.

Voluntary Associations.

The students form among themselves several voluntary societies, some of a religious, others of a literary character. At Harvard, though the prevailing denominational influence is Unitarian, I was informed that not half of the students belong to that communion.

Resident Graduates.

At Harvard there is a small body of students in the academical department that does not appear to exist at Yale, called "resident graduates." They are graduates, either of that or of other collegiate institutions, who wish to pursue their studies without joining any of the professional schools. They are allowed to use the library, which is a very excellent one, containing upwards of 100,000 volumes, and the scientific collections on the payment of $5 a year. They are, also, admitted free to all courses of public lectures delivered to under-graduates, and, upon payment of $5 for each course, to the lectures delivered in the Scientific School. They are amenable to University discipline, and have to give to the steward satisfactory bonds in the sum of $200. There were nine such members of the University in 1865.

Theological Department.

An elaborate and systematic course of theological instruction, as a preparation for the Christian ministry, extending over a period of three years, is given in the Divinity Schools both of Yale and Harvard. At Yale, in 1865, there were 23 theological students; at Harvard, 17. Candidates for admission need not be Bachelors of Arts or graduates of the University; but if not they must pass a tolerably severe preliminary examination.* The full course, as already mentioned, extends over three years of 40 weeks each; but it may be, and often is, shortened by the contrivance, of which, perhaps, a note might profitably be taken at home, of admission to advanced standing.

"The course of instruction" at Harvard "comprises lectures, recitations, and other exercises on all the subjects usually included in a system of theological education, embracing—

The Hebrew language.
The principles of criticism and interpretation.
The criticism and interpretation of Scripture.
Natural religion and the evidences of revealed religion.
Systematic theology, Christian ethics, and practical Divinity.
Church history and Church polity.
The composition and delivery of sermons and the office of public prayer.
The duties of the pastoral office.

The members of the several classes have exercises in the practice of extemporaneous speaking, and the members of the senior class preach occasionally in Cambridge during the summer term."

At Yale (where the course of instruction includes the Greek as well as the Hebrew Scriptures, and lectures on logic, psychology, moral philosophy in its more marked relations to religion, and the history of Christian doctrine, together with facilities for the study of Sanskrit and German) the instructors meet the students in a body, twice in each month, in a familiar conference upon subjects of practical interest to persons preparing themselves for the ministry.

At Yale there are no less than six professors in this department; at Harvard only three; in both cases exclusive of the President.

Advanced Standing.

Candidates for admission to advanced standing must have been engaged in the study of theology as long as the class which they desire to join, and must pass an examination in the studies which that class has pursued. There are three classes in the school, corresponding to the years of the course.

Expense of the Course.

At Harvard, a building, called Divinity Hall, is appropriated to the theological students, in or near which they must reside. The annual expense for instruction, rent, and care of room and furniture and use of class books is $75. At Yale, a building is provided for the students, the rooms in which are rent-free, but a charge is made of $5 a year for incidental expenses. No other charges are made to the students. In both colleges there are beneficiary funds

* This, at least, is the case at Harvard. At Yale, "the conditions of entrance are hopeful piety "and a liberal education at some college, or such other literary acquisitions as may be considered "an equivalent preparation for theological studies.

attached to the department, out of which assistance is given to indigent students. It is mentioned in the Yale catalogue, that "students who have "advanced so far in their course of study as to have obtained a license, have "frequent opportunities to preach, with pecuniary compensation." In the case of students intending to be missionaries, free admission is given at Yale to the lectures in the medical department. There do not appear to be any degrees in divinity conferred in this department.

Whatever may be its results, the liberal and extended character of this programme contrasts markedly with the hurried and perfunctory way in which preparation for the work of the Christian ministry is ordinarily accomplished among ourselves. Theological seminaries form quite a feature among the educational institutions of the United States.

THE LAW SCHOOL.

"The design of the Law School at Harvard is to afford a complete course of legal education to persons intended for the bar in any of the United States, except in matters of mere local law and practice, and also a systematic course of studies in commercial jurisprudence for those who intend to devote themselves exclusively to mercantile pursuits."

"No examination and no particular course of previous study is required for admission; but the student, if not a graduate of some college, must be at least 19 years of age, and produce testimonials of good moral character."

Caution money and fees.

He must give a bond in the sum of $200, or deposit $150 with the steward upon his entrance, and at the commencement of each subsequent term, to be retained till the end of the term, and then to be accounted for. The fees are $50 a term, or $25 for half or any smaller fraction of a term; for which the student has the use of the lecture rooms, the law and college libraries (the former containing 13,000 volumes), and the text-books. He is admitted free to all public lectures in the academical department, and to lectures in the scientific school on payment of $5 for each course. The other expenses of a term (20 weeks), including board, room-rent, washing, fuel and attendance, are reckoned to range from $150 to $285. The difference lies in the varying cost of board, which can be had at as cheap a rate as $3 a week, or may rise as high as $8.

Course of studies.

The course of instruction for the bar comprises the various branches of the common law and of equity, admiralty, commercial, international, and constitutional law, and the jurisprudence of the United States. The course for the mercantile profession is more limited, and embraces only the principal branches of commercial jurisprudence, viz., the law of agency, of partnership, of bailments, of bills of exchange, and promissory notes, of insurance, of shipping and navigation, of sales, and if the students desire it, of constitutional law.

Length of course.

The course is so arranged as to be completed in two years; and the students are allowed to select such portions of it as they deem most in accordance with their views and attainments. Instruction is given orally by lectures and expositions, of which there are 10 every week; and a so-called "moot court" is held each week, in which a cause, previously assigned, is argued by four students, and an opinion delivered by the presiding professor. Clubs also are formed among the students for purposes of reading dissertations and forensic discussions.

The degree of Bachelor of Laws is conferred, upon the certificate and recommendation of the law Faculty, on students who have spent a year of study, connected with a required previous amount of preparation elsewhere, in this school.

The number of students in the Law School at Harvard in the year 1864–5 was 125; of whom 57 belonged to the senior, 31 to the middle, and 37 to the junior class.*

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* The regulations of the Law School at Yale are substantially the same as those at Harvard. The terms, however, are rather lower; being, for tuition, use of text-books and library, for the whole course of two years, 150 dols.; for one year, 80 dols.; for less than one year, 10 dols. a month—in each case payable in advance. The degree of L.L.B. is conferred upon "liberally educated" students after 18 months' membership; upon students "not liberally educated" after two years' membership, upon passing a satisfactory examination. The fee for the diploma is five dollars.

Passing an examination is not mentioned as a condition of a degree in law at Harvard, but it may fairly be supposed.

The Law School at Yale had only 32 students in 1864-5.

THE SCHOOL OF MEDICINE.

The Harvard School of Medicine is situated in Boston, for the sake, it may be presumed, of vicinity to the hospitals. Instruction is given by means of lectures, recitations, examinations, dissections, and hospital visits, in the direct and collateral subjects usually included in the programme of a medical school. The period of the course is two years, each divided into two terms—a shorter or winter term of 17 weeks, commencing on the first Wednesday in November, and a longer or summer term, extending from 1st March to 1st November. The month of August and September, however, constitute the vacation. The fee for instruction during the long term is $100; the fees for the winter courses of lectures amount in all to $95. An examination is held twice a year by the Faculty of the school in order to test the qualifications of candidates for the degree of Doctor in Medicine. Before being admitted to examination, the candidate must have fulfilled the following conditions:—

1. He must be 21 years of age;
2. Must have attended two courses of lectures delivered by each of the Professors of the school;*
3. Must have employed three years of his professional studies under the direction of a regular practitioner of medicine;
4. If he have not received a University education, he must satisfy the Faculty in respect to his knowledge of the Latin language and Experimental Philosophy;
5. A month previous to the day of examination, must have transmitted to the Dean a dissertation, written by himself, on some subject connected with medicine.

The examination itself embraces the subjects of Anatomy, Physiology, Chemistry, Materia Medica, Pharmacy, Morbid Anatomy, Midwifery, Surgery, Clinical Medicine, and the Theory and Practice of Medicine; and the decision in respect to each candidate is determined by the vote of the majority of the members of the Faculty present at his examination. Three members of the Faculty are required to be present at every examination. There is a fee of $20 on graduation. In 1864-5 there were 216 medical students at Harvard, against 47 at Yale. The hospital advantages of a city of the size of Boston over a city of the size of Newhaven would partly account for the disparity.

SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL.

Both to Harvard and to Yale is attached a school of similar character—though at Yale with somewhat wider aims—called at the former University the "Scientific School," at the latter, the "Department of Philosophy and the Arts," in the first of which the degree of Bachelor of Science, in the second the degrees of Bachelor and Doctor of Philosophy are conferred.

The school at Yale is divided into two sections; the first including courses of instruction in chemistry and natural science, in civil engineering and mechanics, in agriculture, and a select course of scientific and literary study; the second, I hardly know with what direct practical object, aiming at a higher measure of mental culture in the specific departments of philosophy and history, philology, mathematics and physics.†

Conditions of Admission, &c.

At Harvard candidates for admission must have attained the age of 18 years, have received a good common English education, and be qualified to pursue with advantage the course of study to which they propose to give their attention. The subjects included in the course are chemistry, zoology, geology,

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* If the student have attended a course of similar lectures in any other College or University, the same may take the place of one of the above courses.

† Under the first head are included Political and Social History and International Law, Psychology, Logic, and the History of Philosophy; History and Criticism of English Literature. Philology comprises the Latin and Greek Languages and Literatures: General Philology, Ethnology and Oriental Languages; Modern European Languages. The third department comprehends Pure and Mixed Mathematics and Astronomy.

The degree of Doctor of Philosophy is conferred upon persons who have spent two years in these studies after taking their first degree, and who give evidence, upon examination of high attainments in them.

I do not observe any department at Harvard corresponding to this feature of Yale: indeed, the whole conception has a somewhat German air, and one is surprised to find it naturalized on American soil. Whether it thrives as well as exists, I cannot say; for though the whole number of students—84—is given in the department of Philosophy and the Arts, there is no distinct distribution of them between the two sections. I should hardly expect, however, that such a prolonged course of study, with no definite practical object, would suit the impatient, realistic temper of the American mind.

botany, comparative anatomy and physiology, mineralogy, the higher mathematics, and engineering. The number and choice of studies are to a certain extent optional on the part of students, but, when chosen, a punctual attendance on all prescribed exercises is required. The degree of Bachelor of Science may be conferred on any student who, having attended the instructions of the school for at least one year, and completed the prescribed course of studies in one or more departments, shall have passed a satisfactory public examination. Certificates, also, may be granted to students who do not graduate, stating the time they have been present in the school, the studies they have pursued, and the progress they have made.

The scale of fees for instruction ranges in the different departments from $15 to $75 a term, the highest rate being in the department of engineering. In some of the departments the charge for instruction is a matter of private arrangement between the student and the professor.*

Students are required to lodge and board in licensed houses, and to conform to the general discipline of the University, as well as to the particular regulations of their department.

In 1864–5 there were 72 students in this school.

Such is a sketch, making no pretence to originality, extracted indeed, often *ipsissimis verbis*, from their own "catalogues," and only filled in here and there with the results of my own observation, of the two most celebrated Universities in the United States. They furnish the type to which, *mutatis mutandis*, most others aspire. Their distinctive feature is the preponderance of the academical over the professional department. In most of the other so-called universities that proportion is reversed. The stern demands of practical life in the younger States have, perhaps, necessitated this. But it is a necessity which Americans admit with regret. Their ablest minds are sensible of the need, and recognize the value, of a "thorough classical or scientific education." Presidents in the west and north-west "feel the necessity of strong efforts to "advance the academical department of their Universities." They do not believe that "medical and law schools alone indicate the prosperity of universi- "ties as educational institutions." One of them considered that it was a state of things requiring re-adjustment, when upon entering on his duties as President of the University of Michigan, he found "the usual under-graduate "classical course in operation with an attendance of about 50 students," and concurrently with that, "a medical course with an attendance of about 130 "students." The aim of American educators is to give classical and scientific (as distinct from professional) studies a predominance, but not a monopoly, in the university. The great body of the students at Harvard and Yale are in the so-called academical department. It is generally admitted that the idea of a university, as at present developed, is incomplete, and "is in part composed "of the intermediate or pre-disciplinary course common to the colleges and "the gymnasia of Germany, in part of that which belongs to a university "properly so-called." "And so," adds the writer whom I have quoted, "it "must remain until all the parts of a just system of public education are fully "developed in their order and relations. When this is accomplished the Uni-

* At Yale the fee for instruction in both departments of the school amounts to, or "will not exceed," 100 dols. per annum. Arrangements have been made with the State of Connecticut for admitting to the school a certain number of pupils gratuitously. Candidates for this bounty must be citizens of the State; preference being given to such as are "fitting themselves for "agricultural and mechanical or manufacturing occupations, who are or shall become orphans "through the death of a parent in the naval or military service of the United States, and next "to them, to such as are most in need of pecuniary assistance." The appointments are to be distributed as far as practicable among the several counties of the State in proportion to their population. The gratuitous instruction of these students is provided by appropriating to the scientific school of Yale the income of certain funds derived from the sale of United States' lands. I imagine that this is the way, or at least part of the way, in which Connecticut is fulfilling the condition under which she has received scrip for 180,000 acres of public land for the purpose of "endowing colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts." The Act authorizing this donation has been mentioned in the body of this Report (p. 45).

The full course of instruction for students in agriculture at Yale occupies three years. Applicants for admission must be 16 years of age, and of good moral character. They must sustain an examination in arithmetic, algebra, geometry, plane trigonometry, the elements of natural philosophy, English grammar, geography, and the history of the United States. There is a shorter course of seven months, for which no preliminary examination is required. This department of the scientific school (to which there is nothing correspondent at Harvard) was to open on September 13, 1865.

" versity can become purely a University—an institution for professional " study, for the culminating studies in science and literature, and for manly " self-development."*

These American ideas will, perhaps, help to modify or confirm the ideas which each of my readers has probably formed for himself of what an English University ought to be.

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* *See Review by Rev. Dr. H. P. Tappan of his Connection with the University of Michigan,* pp. 5, 6. The same gentleman has published a discourse on "The University, its constitution, " and its relations, political and religious," delivered before the Christian Library Association in June 1858, which I have no doubt would be interesting, but which I have not had the good fortune to see.

APPENDIX L.

American Endowments.

State of the American law in regard of endowments.

I undertook to collect for the Commissioners some information with regard to the principles and practice adopted in the United States in relation to educational endowments. For this purpose, having been furnished by the Secretary with an enumeration of the chief points to which the attention of the Commissioners was being directed, I drew up a series of ten questions which I ventured to send to Mr. Chief Justice Chase, and to one of the most eminent lawyers of Boston, the Hon. C. G. Loring, from both of whom I had received personal attentions in America, with a request that, if they could find the leisure, they would kindly attempt to answer them. The public engagements of the Chief Justice, probably, have not allowed him to attend to the matter: but from Mr. Loring I have received a most explicit and careful reply, which I cannot do better than lay before the Commissioners *in extenso*.* The following then is the document in full.

No national common law in U.S.

"Before considering the questions submitted, it may be well to state that "there is in this country no national common law. Each State has its own "common law. This, in the case of the original States, is generally the com- "mon law of England as it was amended or altered by English statutes in "force at the time such States were respectively settled. In some of the "States, laws were passed soon after the Revolution declaring in general terms "what should be considered as the common law: in others, the English "statutes were specifically repealed or declared to be still in force; while, in "others, no action was taken by the legislature, but the courts have from time "to time as questions have come before them, determined what English "statutes are in force.

Principles governing national courts.

"The national courts when questions of common law come before them, are "governed by the *lex loci*, the *lex domicilii*, the *lex loci rei sitæ*, or the *lex fori*, "as either of these controls.

"*Question I.* Are any and what restrictions placed by law on the gift or "dedication of real and personal property to charitable uses?

Statutes of Mortmain have never been in force in U.S.

"*Ans.* The English statutes of Mortmain have been declared by the Supreme "Court of the United States (Perin *v.* Carey, 24 How. 449) never to have "been in force in this country, and similar decisions have been made in several "of the States. In 1808 the Judges of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, "in a report to the legislature, declared that the English statutes of Mortmain "were in part inapplicable to that State, and in part applicable and in force, "and said that a conveyance of land to a corporation by deed or will was void "unless sustained by charter or act of assembly; so, if to unincorporated "associations, if for purposes of a superstitious nature and not calculated to "promote objects of charity or utility (3 Binney [Penn.] 626).

"By a subsequent Act of the legislature of this State, a corporation incor- "porated under the laws of another State is forbidden to hold lands in Penn- "sylvania, unless expressly authorized by the laws of that State. And by an "Act passed in 1855 all bequests to religious and charitable uses are void "unless the same are made at least one calendar month before the decease of "the testator or alienor.

"I know of no other State where restrictions of this kind are placed upon "the power of a person to give his property to whom he pleases.

Statute of 43 Eliz. c. 4. recognized as defining what is a charitable use.

"The question what is a charitable use has been much discussed in this

* Mr. Loring, having for eleven years withdrawn from practice, tells me in the letter which accompanied the more formal document printed in the text, that he "resorted to the aid of a friend for looking up the cases and more modern decisions;" but he "believes that the replies "will be found satisfactory, and he is not aware that he could by further investigation add "anything material, or that any source open to him has been unexplored." He adds, however, "It is possible that Mr. Chase may be able to give information upon the principles and practice of the Western and Southern States which has escaped me; so that between us you will have a pretty fair knowledge of American law upon the subject." But from the Chief Justice, as already stated, I have not heard.

" country. The English statute of 43 Eliz. c. 4 is in force in North Carolina " and Kentucky. It was expressly repealed in New York in 1788, and in " Virginia in 1792. In Massachusetts, Maine, Pennsylvania, Kentucky and " Georgia, the principles of the statute obtain as part of the common law. " Thus in a late case before the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, not yet re- " ported, it is said that 'The statute of 43 Eliz. c. 4 in principle and substance, " so far as it recognizes defines or indicates what are charitable uses, is part " of our common law;' and, after citing the preamble to this statute, the " Court say: 'No one can read this sentence without perceiving its aim to " have been to show by familiar examples what classes or kinds of uses were " considered charitable or so beneficial to the public as to be entitled to the " same protection as strictly charitable uses, rather than to enumerate or " specify all the purposes which would fall within the scope and intent of the " statute, much less every possible mode of carrying them out. Courts are " guided not by its letter but by its manifest spirit and reason, and are to con- " sider not what uses are within its words but what are expressed in its " meaning and purpose."

Immoral or impolitic bequests would be set aside.

" *Quest. II.* Would a bequest be set aside by the Court on the ground of its " being opposed to morality or public policy?

" *Ans.* There can be no doubt that a bequest would be set aside for either " of the reasons above stated. Any bequest to carry out an object in violation " of the laws of the land or which would tend to cause such violation would " be held to be void.

" *Quest. III.* Is there any and what power of altering the destination of a " charity either as regards the objects of the charity or the manner of its appli- " cation,* in case that original destination was either thought objectionable, " or supposed to have failed?

Doctrine of *cyprès* not fully established in U.S.

" *Ans.* The doctrine of *cyprès* cannot be said to be fully established in this " country. In a late case in New York it is said that the English doctrine of " *cyprès* does not obtain in that State (Beekham v. Bonsor, 23 N.Y. 311). " Nor does it in North Carolina and Kentucky. In Massachusetts there has " as yet been no decision by the full bench of the Supreme Court directly " affirming the power of the Court in the matter, but there are *dicta* which " tend to show that the doctrine would be applied in a proper case. Thus, in " Sanderson v. White (18 Pick. Mass. 323), Shaw, C. J., said 'Where a literal " execution may become impracticable or inexpedient in part or even in whole, " it will be carried into effect so as to accomplish the general purpose of the " donor as nearly as circumstances will permit, and as such general charitable " intent can be ascertained.' So, in Baker v. Smith (13 Metcalf, Mass. 41), " the same learned jurist said, 'We mean to express no doubt of the power of " the court as a court of equity in cases of gifts to charitable uses, when the " will cannot be executed according to its terms, to sanction an execution which " shall, as nearly as may be, carry into effect the charitable intent, *ut res magis " valeat quam pereat.*' And in the case of American Academy of Arts and " Sciences v. Harvard College (1832, to be reported in 12 Gray), where a " bequest of Count Rumford was made to the Academy for a specific purpose, " and it became impracticable to carry out the intent of the donor in the mode " prescribed, Shaw, C.J., directed a scheme to be reported. This case was not, " however, before the full court. In the case of Harvard College v. Society for " Promoting Theological Education (3 Gray, Mass. 280), it was held that the " court would not, in the exercise of its Chancery jurisdiction, withdraw funds " given by individuals to the Corporation of Harvard College, or for the benefit

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* It has been already mentioned in a note to the text of the Report (p. 44) that an attempt was recently made in Indiana to alter the application of the so-called "township fund," and to make it more effective for good by distributing it equably throughout the State; but it was the opinion of the Supreme Court that such an alteration would be a breach of trust, and the attempt was therefore not proceeded with.

The case of the West Chester Society's Schools at Colchester, Connecticut, was mentioned to me by the late Superintendent of Schools in that State, and illustrates, not perhaps the doctrine of *cyprès*, but the liberty of interpretation which is allowed to be put upon the intentions of a founder. An individual bequeathed certain funds for the maintenance of a public school in this township, to be kept by a teacher or teachers who could give instruction in Latin and Greek. Such instruction being now not required, is not given, and the income of the endowment is divided among the five district schools; but the teachers are required to possess the prescribed qualification, even though the classical languages are not taught in the schools. It has, however, been sometimes considered a sufficient qualification if the teacher knows the Greek alphabet.

" of a divinity school attached to the college, and entrust them to an independent board of trustees to be applied to the support of a divinity school not " connected with the college, merely on the ground of inconvenience and embarrassment in continuing the connexion between the college and the divinity " school, and of the benefit which would result to both from a separation, and " without proof of incapacity or unfaithfulness on the part of the corporation " or failure of the objects of the charity.

American view of the *cyprès* power of English Chancery Courts.

" It has generally been considered in this country that the *cyprès* power of " the English Chancery Courts is not a judicial but a prerogative power, and " that prerogative powers belonging to the sovereign as *parens patriæ* were not " vested in the general government of the United States, but remained in the " States in their respective sovereign capacities. (See Fontaine *v.* Ravenal, " 17 Howard (U.S.) 384.) If this be so, the question how far the courts of " equity in the several States have *cyprès* power, depends upon the extent of " the general chancery jurisdiction conferred upon them. In Massachusetts, " before full equity jurisdiction was given to the Supreme Court, the legislature " in many instances exercised *cyprès* power. In the Divinity School case above " mentioned, the legislature afterwards passed a law authorizing the College to " resign the trusts and the Court to appoint a new trustee.

Diversity in principles and practice of different States.

" *Quest. IV.* Are the principles of equity and the practice of the Courts " affecting this matter of endowments tolerably uniform and identical in the " several States, or do both principles and practice vary widely?

" *Ans.* There is great diversity both in the principles of equity and the " practice of the Courts in the several States on this subject. In some States " the Courts have full equity jurisdiction; in others, a more limited one.

" *Quest. V.* What is the legal constitution of the bodies to which the administration of the several charities is intrusted? If they consist of private " persons only, what power is there in the hands of any external body of " appointing new administrators, if need be? If they are administered by " public bodies, what are ordinarily the territorial limits of the jurisdiction of " such bodies?

The courts will see that trusts are properly administered.

" *Ans.* In this country charitable bequests are either made to societies already " incorporated, or to one or more persons as trustees. In either case Courts " exercising Chancery powers on proper representation made would see that " the trust was faithfully administered, and if no direction as to the mode of " appointment of new trustees were given, the Courts exercising probate or " chancery powers, according to the law of the State, would appoint new " trustees.

" *Quest. VI.* What is the tenure of office of the Masters of endowed schools? " for life, or *quamdiu se bene gesserint*, or during good pleasure? and what " would be the process of removing an incompetent or otherwise unfit master?

Tenure of office depends on will of founder, or of trustees.

" *Ans.* The tenure of office is a matter depending entirely upon the will of " the founder, or, if this is not expressed, upon the will of the trustees or " persons who have the management of the institution. The power of removal " would depend somewhat upon the tenure of office. In case of incompetency, " there can be no doubt of the power of the trustees to remove.

" *Quest. VII.* Is there any and what preliminary control exercised over applications to Courts of Justice in chancery matters?

Duty of Attorney General in the States.

" *Ans.* The practice varies in different States. In Massachusetts by a statute " passed in 1849 it is made the duty of the Attorney-General to enforce the " due application of funds given or appropriated to public charities, within the " State, or prevent breaches of trust in the administration thereof. And in a " case which was commenced before the passage of this statute, the Court " said: "The power to institute and prosecute a suit of this nature in order " to establish and carry into effect an important branch of the public interest " is understood to be a common law power incident to the office of Attorney-" General, or public prosecutor for the Government. (Parker *v.* May, 5 Cush. " (Mass.) 336).

" In New York it is said that remedy by information must, in that State, " assume the form of an ordinary suit in the name of the Attorney-General, or " perhaps of the people of the State, and it would be limited in its scope by the " principles of the common law. (Owens *v.* Missionary Society, 14 N.Y. 408, " (1856.)

Nothing analogous to English Board of Charity Commissioners.

" I am not aware that there is any Board with similar duties to the English " Charity Commissioners in any of the States of this country.

" *Ques.* viii. Are endowed schools subject to inspection by any and what " authority external to the school?

Visitatorial powers of founders subject to restraint by the Courts.

" *Ans.* The common law of England as to visitation of corporations gene- " rally prevails in this country. The founder, or his heirs, unless he has given " the right of visitation to some other person or body, has the power to in- " spect the affairs of the corporation, and superintend all officers who have " the management of them, according to the regulations prescribed by the " founder, without any control or revision of any other person or body, except " the judicial tribunals, by whose authority and jurisdiction they may be re- " strained and kept within the limits of their granted powers, and made to " regard the constitution and law of the land." (Murdock, Appellant, 7 " Pickering (Mass.) 322; Nelson *v.* Cushing, 2 Cush. (Mass.) 519; Allen *v.* " Mackeen, 1 Sumner, 276 (U.S. Circuit Court, Story, J.)

Legislature no right to interfere with charter of a corporation, unless such right is reserved in charter.

" In regard to the right of the legislature of a state to interfere with a cor- " poration, it has been the settled law of this country, since the Dartmouth " College case, 4 Wheat. (U. S.) 518, decided in 1819, that a state has no right, " against its consent, to alter, amend, or repeal the charter of a college or a " school, unless such power is expressly reserved in the charter, or by a gene- " ral law. At the present day it is unusual for a state to grant a charter with- " out reserving this right; but a state rarely interferes with, or controls the " management of a school, unless such school is endowed by the state.

" *Quest.* ix. Is religious instruction given in endowed schools compulsory " on all the pupils? or what provision is made for exempting any pupil from " religious instruction disapproved by their parents or guardians?

Religious instruction prescribed by founder would be compulsory.

" *Ans.* Except in denominational schools, religious instruction is usually of " a very elementary character. If the founder prescribed the nature of the re- " ligious instruction, it would be compulsory on all who attended. If pre- " scribed by the trustees, and objection should be made by persons entitled to " secular instruction by the will of the founder, a serious question would arise " as to the extent of the power of the trustees.

" *Quest.* x. Are girls considered to have as good a right to share in educa- " tional endowments as boys?

Girls considered to have as good a claim as boys to share in educational endowments.

" *Ans.* There is no distinction made between boys and girls in case of a " general bequest for the purposes of education.

" In Nelson *v.* Cushing, 2 Cush. (Mass.) 519, decided in 1848, the testator " bequeathed his property 'for the establishment and support of a free Eng- " lish school, in Newbury-port, for the instruction of youth, wherever they " may belong." The Court was of the opinion that the testator meant a " school for girls as well as for boys.*

" Much would, doubtless, depend upon the kind of school mentioned, and " on the nature of the studies to be taught. The intent of the testator, as " gathered from all the provisions of the will, would govern."

Extract from Connecticut Report for 1866.

I will conclude this Appendix with an extract from the Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education of Connecticut for 1866 (which has just reached me), on the general condition of Endowments and Incorporations in that State, which, as already mentioned (*p.* 21), was one of the earliest, if not the earliest, in the Union, to form a State School Endowment Fund.

" The two educational establishments in the State which are most vene- " rable, are the Grammar Schools at Hartford and Newhaven, which were " endowed by the bequest of Governor Edward Hopkins, who died in 1657. " No other schools compare with these in age. Both of them are still flourish- " ing. The private Acts of the State show that 42 charters have been granted " between the year 1793 and the present time, for the encouragement of what " have been commonly called 'Academies.' These schools have generally " been provided with buildings by a joint-stock subscription, or in some simi- " lar way, and their current expenses have been met by tuition and the income " of funds. Of the schools which have been thus established, by far the larger " part have ceased to have any vitality. The period most favourable to this " kind of foundation appears to have been the twenty years between 1819 and

* The case of the Newbury-port schools has already been mentioned in the Report. (*See p.* 19, *note* †.)

" 1839. Three of the most recent incorporations and the two denominational " schools, are the most flourishing.*

" In 1839 a general Act was passed by the Legislature, authorizing citizens " of the State to form an incorporation, under certain conditions, for the main- " tenance of an academy. The number of such corporations is not known to " me, but they have been not unfrequently established; indeed, in regard to " almost all these endowed and incorporated schools, it is very difficult to pro- " cure information. Very few of them are required to make any public report; " many of them are dormant, or dead; some of them have funds given for the " promotion of specific objects. It seems worth inquiring how far these funds " have been preserved, and directed to their appropriate ends. Even small " trusts should be watched by the public with a careful eye, for thus only can " they be protected, and thus only is security afforded, that larger trusts will " be applied to the objects for which they are designed."†

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* A list is given in the Report of the Endowments and Incorporations in Connecticut (43 in number) for the support of schools of the higher grades, ranging in date of foundation from 1660 to 1855, of which only 17 are stated to be still maintained. This fact seems to indicate that the principle of an endowment, with its stationariness, is foreign to the progressive temper of the American people, and out of keeping with the required adaptability of American institutions. And yet, in spite of the failure of endowments, the habit of endowing appears to be much more active there than among ourselves. I have mentioned some splendid instances in the Report, *p.* 12, *note*. It is a significant fact that among the most flourishing incorporations are reckoned the two denominational schools.

With regard to the action of endowments in relation to their amount, in another part of this Report of the Secretary (p. 90), it is observed that " Experience has demonstrated that small endowments and tuition-fees usually furnish an inadequate basis for the permanent maintenance of a first-rate School; either a liberal endowment, yielding a good income, or a property tax is found needful."

† *Connecticut Report for* 1866, *pp.* 43–45.